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ABSTRACT

The proceedings of the tenth annual meeting of the College Reading Association consisted of the following papers: (1) "President's Address" (L. S. Braam); (2) "Some Second Thoughts on Teaching Speed and Flexibility to College Freshman" (D. J. Yarington); (3) "Improvement of Teachers' Reading Proficiency" (A. J. Stuart); (4) "Induction and Orientation of Beginning and New Teachers" (R. A. Sizemore); (5) an abstract of "Individualized Supervision" (C. O'Connell); (6) "Clinical Procedures" (B. A. Lloyd); (7) "Time, Space and Dyslexia" (S. Krippner); (8) "Pre-Service Education in Reading" (E. C. Kennedy); (9) "Standards and Ethics for the Reading Practitioner" (C. R. Colvin); (10) "Reading Rate: Claims and Controversies" (A. Berger); (11) "Let's Understand the Phonics Issue" (D. L. Edwards); (12) "Research Looks at the Tenth Grade Reader" (C. A. Ketcham); (13) "The Fearful Task--Trying to Teach Reading in the Two-Year College" (E. S. Johnson); (14) "Adult Literacy: Appropriate Measures for Use in Appraisal" (R. A. Ironside); (15) "Some Measurable Aspects of Creativity in Writing" (D. T. Fishco); (16) "Why Every College Needs a Developmental Reading Program" (W. C. Davies); (17) "The Special Reading Services" (S. M. Cohn); (18) "Basic Considerations for Helping Children in Special Reading Improvement Programs" (J. Levin); (19) "A New Look at Vocabulary Research" (W. T. Petty); (20) "Research and Beginning Reading: Some Reflections and Suggestions" (C. Morrison); (21) "Fostering Creativity in Reading and Language Arts among Our Gifted" (J. Slaymaker); (22) "Needed: Teachers to Revitalize Reading" (H. H. Sandberg); (23) "Improving the Professional Training of Reading Personnel" (R. Newton); (24) an abstract of "Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading: Revisited" (C. A. Lefevre); (25) "In-Service Training in Reading" (A. W. Heilman); (26) "Give Them All a Head Start with Children's Books!" (D. J. Bissett); and (27) "The Media of Our Age" (M. J. Weiss). (MS)

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Proceedings

of

COLLEGE READING ASSOCIATION

PROFESSIONAL VARIETY
IN
READING

Clay A. Ketcham, Editor
Lafayette College

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Volume VIII

Fall, 1967

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COLLEGE READING ASSOCIATION

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THE COLLEGE READING ASSOCIATION was initiated by a group of college teachers who met in 1958 to discuss the feasibility of organizing a professional group for those concerned with the teaching and administration of college reading programs. Since then it has expanded its interests and membership to include those concerned with the training of teachers in the teaching of reading at all grade levels. It has become a national organization interested in promoting professional standards of competency and ethical practice among reading personnel, improving administration, diagnosis and teaching procedures in reading and stimulating and promoting reading research at all levels.

The Annual Meeting of the College Reading Association is scheduled for the Friday and Saturday before Palm Sunday each year.

The Association is responsible for two professional publications. **The Journal of the Reading Specialist** featuring articles, discussions of controversial issues, research summaries, reviews and news from the reading field is published quarterly October through May. **The Proceedings of the College Reading Association** containing abstracts of the major presentations at the year's Annual Meeting is published each fall.

Membership in the Association is open to college and university faculty members affiliated with reading programs and clinics or engaged in preparing teachers of reading and to specialists, consultants, therapists, and supervisors engaged in reading diagnosis, instruction, consultation or research in public or private schools, governmental agencies, industry or private practice at any level interested in the purposes of the Association.

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FOREWORD

PROFESSIONAL VARIETY IN READING

William H. Cooper, Program Chairman

Our Tenth Annual Meeting, held March 15-18, 1967 at Bowling Green State University, was a noteworthy success, with more than four hundred persons attending the Friday and Saturday sessions. On-the-spot "feedback" was altogether enthusiastic, and subsequent correspondence with many who were there has been equally gratifying. This volume of **Proceedings,** furnishing as it does a record of the main substantive aspects of the program, clearly demonstrates that such approval was not unwarranted.

A theme for a meeting may function as a lens in that it focuses upon some one portion of a field. This theme of "Professional Variety in Reading" ought more properly to be construed as a kind of prism which discloses divergencies as well, indicative of the variety among CRA members with respect to their functions and interests. The table of contents and the papers which follow go far to illuminate the full spectrum of concern.

A meeting is of course something more than the presentation of papers. This volume cannot pretend to project everything which went on. The spirit of personal association was most warm and friendly, especially in the early Swap-Talk, the coffee sessions, and the Social Hour; the two luncheons and the evening banquet were gloriously set up by the local arrangements committee. The meetings of the Board of Directors and of the several Commissions and Committees were highly productive, the Legislative Assembly was notable perhaps especially for the delineation of a statement on Standards and Ethics. The thirty commercial exhibitors also made a genuine contribution. And this meeting served, too, as the occasion for at least two "class reunions" for NDEA Reading Institutes. These elements are not here recorded, but they were indeed organic part and parcel.

What is a matter of permanent record herein is the program itself, addressed to treating the current issues in reading instruction at all levels and at all degrees of specialization: Pre-school, elementary, secondary, junior-college, university, and adult programs; neurological and visual factors; preservice and inservice teacher-education; reading rate; phonics; creativity; vocabulary development; clinical-diagnostic-corrective practices; children's literature; professionalism; federal programs; reading for the gifted; linguistics. . . .

I trust that these papers will prove to be of the same interest and value to readers as they were judged to be by those who were privileged to receive them "live." It was a great satisfaction for me to have been in part instrumental in arranging for their presentation.

COLLEGE READING ASSOCIATION
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The Journal of the Reading Specialist	Albert Mazurkiewicz

Eleventh Annual Meeting
April 5 - 6, 1968
University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tennessee

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

Leonard S. Braam
Syracuse University

You are all aware, I am sure, that this is the 10th Annual Meeting of the College Reading Association. If my historical information is correct it was in the spring of 1958 that a small group of individuals concerned about the teaching of reading at the college level met to consider the possibilities of formulating a professional organization. The purpose of that gathering was to examine the possibilities of establishing an organization to facilitate the exploration of topics and the sharing of information related to the teaching of reading at the college level. On Saturday afternoon, October 11, 1958, the first college reading conference was held at LaSalle College.

Since then the organization has developed in numerous ways. Membership has now reached 369. Invitations to plan and conduct co-sponsored sessions at the International Reading Association's annual conference indicate that organization's recognition of the CRA as a contributing professional organization. During the 1962-63 year the **Journal of the Reading Specialist** was formally established as the organization's contribution to the dissemination of ideas and information. Two commissions — the Paperback Commission and the Research Commission — have been established and charged with the responsibility of addressing themselves to problems in their respective areas. Each year since 1961 Dr. Ketcham has edited the Proceedings of the CRA which has made it possible to retain in bound form and disseminate beyond the confines of our annual meetings the ideas presented by the various speakers.

In November 1963 the CRA acquired corporate status as a non-profit professional organization.

There are always those who assess an organization's vitality, in part at least, by its financial statements. I presume I should therefore mention that as you will hear from Mr. Herr, our Secretary-Treasurer, the CRA has moved up the economic scale to a point just beyond the "hand-to-mouth" level. I believe, however, we would still have no difficulty in being categorized as economically disadvantaged.

Despite these indications of progress I have been concerned about this year as a critical one for the CRA as it moves into its second decade of existence. I am concerned about its effective role as a contributing professional organization in the broad field of reading as well as in the area of teaching at the college level. I am concerned about the extent to which the organization is being of direct professional service in resolving existing reading questions, problems, and issues. I am also concerned about the extent to which we are able to effectively anticipate and provide leadership to either forestall emergencies and future problem situations, or at least be prepared to deal with them by other than a crash program approach.

As I examined the published proceedings from previous years I discovered that these concerns appeared to be a not uncommon theme underlying president's remarks in past years. In 1961 Dr. Mazurkiewicz considered the 4th anniversary year to be a crucial one for the organization and a time of ferment in the profession. He talked about the professional challenge of advancing professional standards, critically examining methods of teaching reading, and training programs for teachers and specialists.

In 1962 Dr. Mazurkiewicz, while indicating the belief that professionalism in reading had been slowly growing, expressed the opinion that it was still in a "sad state." He pointed out a situation of most alarming implications — that the source of the emerging controversial and innovative evolutionary ideas in the field of reading have in most cases come from individuals outside the field of reading — or even education. Another observation made by Dr. Mazurkiewicz was related to the question of professional leadership reflected in the following statement, "We, it would appear, have had to keep an eye on what is being done in the schools and reflect this in our teaching, rather than the reverse as might be expected."[1]

In that same speech he admonished, "If attention to the solution of its professional problems is not given by the members of the profession, if we do not criticize ourselves, we can continue to look forward to lay criticism, and we will justly deserve it."[2]

In his 1965 President's address, Dr. Weiss posed numerous questions related to major issues confronting educators in general and reading people in specific. He expressed concern not only about the matter of methods and materials, but also for the need for developing a sound basic philosophy upon which to build new activities. In that speech he made the following statement, "Yes, we can go on, year after year, convention after convention, speaker after speaker; but then what? What happens back home? Has anyone listened with depth?"[3]

Last year in Jersey City, Dr. Aukerman presented us with that so well done combination of tragic and ironic humor. Those of you who heard him, or have read his speech in the Proceedings, undoubtedly recall the five disaster areas he pictured — 1. Linguistics, 2. Programmed reading, 3. Private Project Proposers, 4. Reading in the Kindergarten, 5. Lack of State Certification in the field of Reading — and the eight areas in which he recommended that CRA should assume responsibility and ". . . move decisively and with great speed to save our profession and those in it."[4] If you missed that speech I suggest that you must put it on your must list for reading.

Each of these speeches, as have others, presented problems and issues crying for solution and resolution. I find it impossible to avoid asking: What action has been taken? What has been accomplished to resolve these issues and problems? Each of these issues, problems and questions lays down a challenge to an organization such as the CRA. Each implicitly poses to the organization two questions: 1. Can the organization make an impact significantly greater than can individuals operating outside the framework of organization? 2. How can this impact be made?

Reply to the first of these questions in the negative would raise serious questions concerning the justification for the existence and continuation of the CRA as an organization. This position I am unwilling to accept. I believe there has been sufficient evidence during the past ten years to justify a positive response to this question. But to say yes to this question is not sufficient. We must also ask and determine **how** this can be accomplished.

In 1958 the following topics were noted for later considerations:

1. What should be the standards for college reading personnel?
2. What are uses and misuses of current tests and diagnostic instruments?
3. What should we expect of the college instructor?
4. What is "developmental" college reading?
5. How can college reading programs be evaluated?

How far have we progressed toward resolving the problems represented by these questions?

If we accept these as valid topics representing current needs at the college level, (and I believe they are) how do we continue to work toward their resolution?

As the CRA has broadened its frame of reference we are confronted with questions such as: How can we advance professional standards at all levels? How can we contribute to better teaching methods, better teacher training programs? How can our actions be reflected in practices in the schools rather than the reverse? How can we as an organization provide and disseminate ideas and suggestions which are sufficiently pertinent and challenging to warrant depth listening and take home for implementation? How can the organization be the vehicle or provide the machinery which not only encourages, but makes possible the necessary follow-through or follow-up action required to combat the disaster areas described by Dr. Aukerman? How do we do these things?

It appears to me that in order to do these things three conditions must be brought into existence. First, there must be a delineation of and direction of focus on specific questions and problems. Second, there must be a much greater involvement of a far larger number of organization members. Third, machinery must be established for much greater dissemination, to appropriate audiences, of the professional thinking, philosophy, and recommendations of the organization.

No organization can emerge on the scene in fullblown maturity. Initially, there must be a need which cannot be satisfactorily met through individual efforts alone which is of sufficient significance to provide the stimulus resulting in the inception of the idea of individuals working together within the framework of a group with common needs and interests.

There must be a nucleus of individuals who provide the spark and the driving force to initiate organization. There must be a sufficiently large number of individuals who actually or potentially recognize this same general need to respond to the stimulus of the initiating group. Existence of such conditions **can** give birth to an organization. The existence of these conditions **did** result in the formulation of the CRA.

As such an organization develops, however, it eventually reaches a stage of development where its interests and activities become too great for the initial nucleus of individuals to handle effectively. Delegation or sharing of responsibility becomes necessary. Here is where I believe we are today. The CRA has grown to the point where it is not realistic to rely solely on a small nucleus to accomplish the organization's objectives. We need to consider seriously how we can obtain maximum active involvement of a maximum number of organization members.

In addition I believe we are confronted with another equally important question. How do we become a twelve-month-year functioning organization? It is of much concern to me that, generally speaking, we focus our attention and energies on a two or three day per year period of intensive activity. As an organization what do we do during the remaining weeks and months of the year? What do we do to fan the sparks of interest or curiosity and to capitalize on the enthusiasm which I am convinced is developed at our annual meetings? How can these be encouraged, nurtured, "exploited," if you will to produce change and continuing action on the part of the organization and its members?

It seems to me that a professional organization such as the CRA is composed in general of four categories of individuals. 1. Those with a high degree of interest and sophistication in the area of reading who can find time to formulate the active directing nucleus. 2. Those who have a high degree of interest and sophistication but because of pressures from other commitments find a limited amount of time available for active participation. 3. Those who are or are about to become practitioners in the field of reading who join the organization as recipients to increase their sophistication in the area. 4. Those individuals who are not and may not become active practitioners but who are for various reasons in positions where they feel the need to know more about the area of reading.

The CRA is composed of many able, sophisticated individuals in the field of reading. I suggest that we must give consideration to how this potential can be tapped. How can these individuals be offered an opportunity and encouraged to become actively involved in assisting the organization to realize its objectives?

We need also to consider involvement of the third category of memberships suggested above. How can we involve those less sophisticated in reading in order to contribute both to the organization and to their own individual professional growth?

Nor should we overlook the fourth membership category. How can we involve and make use of the potential of the psychologists, the student personnel people, the optometrists, the administrators, for example, among our membership? How can these individuals become involved in contributing toward a realization of organization objectives?

While I cannot provide the final answers to these questions some suggestions do occur to me which may serve as a base or point of departure for a productive brain storming session, or for those with more fertile imaginations to develop workable procedures.

Many of the questions and problems to which we should be addressing ourselves have been suggested. While individuals can make some inroads, it would appear that real impact can be made more effectively through more coordinated group effort.

What is involved in attacking these problems? Obviously as mentioned earlier, there must be a careful delineation of the problem or issue. This, I would suggest, by and large, has been done.

Individuals with appropriate competencies, sufficient interest, and adequate time must be requested to contribute or volunteer their services to actively work on the issue.

One of our organization's shortcomings, I believe, is that despite our relatively small membership we do not know the composition of that membership sufficiently well to be able to identify such individuals. I suggest, therefore, that machinery must be established whereby we can identify an appropriate person to work on a specific issue or we must encourage these people to make known their interests and volunteer their services.

If we talk in terms of committees or commissions we invariably encounter a time-space problem. To perform effectively committees must meet as a group. It is difficult, if not an actual hardship, for individuals in Massachusetts, Ohio and North Carolina to meet together sufficiently frequently, or for sufficiently long periods of time to produce results. I suggest, therefore, that consideration should be given to committees or work groups being formulated on a geographic basis. I am sure there are CRA members from each of the states represented, or from the larger educational institutions who would be interested in forming a group to look into some of the issues mentioned earlier. Until we know more about the individual interests and competencies of our membership it appears that we must rely on your initiative to volunteer for such activities. I do not, incidentally, see a need for limiting examination of any one issue by one group only. I see no reason why several groups cannot be working on the same problem simultaneously. Their effort can be pooled or coordinated at a meeting such as this. What I believe we need is groups of interested individuals who can meet periodically to direct their thinking and efforts toward a specific problem.

Toward that end the Research Commission has designed their meeting scheduled for Saturday morning not only to report on the past, but to look to the future by encouraging your reaction to already suggested problems, posing of new suggestions concerning additional questions, and hopefully to involve your active participation in project development and execution.

But if we are able to bring the thinking, experience, and sophistication of the members of the CRA to bear on current problems and issues, and if we are able to establish a position and determine recommendations this is all of little value unless communication exists between us and those in policy-making, directing, and executing positions related to education.

Currently, we are communicating through our annual meeting programs, publishing of the **Proceedings**, publishing of the **Journal of the Reading Specialist**, and I am sure of no insignificant impact through the teaching, speaking and working contacts of our members. But do these means of communication reach the maximum size and type of audience we should or could be reaching? I believe we could do more. If we can implement the concept of committees, commissions, work groups, or whatever label they may be given, it seems to me we must then explore ways by which our thinking and positions can be effectively communicated to appropriate audiences.

Again, I do not have the answers, but would like to make some tentative suggestions. I believe we should do more publishing. It seems to me there is need for short, concise, simply worded pamphlets, brochures, position papers, guidelines related to what we conceive to be pertinent major issues. Development of these might well be the charge to committees or commissions. If these can be forthcoming we then need to look carefully at the question of appropriate dissemination. Who should know our position — classroom teachers, college teachers, administrators, college deans, college presidents, state education department personnel, state or federal legislators, and so forth? I suggest that we should give considerable thought to the development of numerous appropriate mailing lists. Perhaps we should explore the concept of purchasing space in widely distributed newspapers or magazines to get our ideas and positions before the general public. Granted, such activities require money but if it is worth doing I am confident that we have sufficiently resourceful individuals among us who can help to resolve successfully the question of financial support.

In summary, my position is this. The CRA has made contributions to the professional area of reading. It is a worthwhile and necessary organization. Its continued and increased effectiveness cannot be left to the thinking, work, and efforts of a few members only. These responsibilities must be shared to a much larger extent by a greater number of CRA members. The organization and the profession needs contributions from each member in the form of ideas, suggestions and, as much as possible, working time. I request you not to wait to be contacted, but to take the initiative by contacting any one of the executive officers or Board of Directors. Let us know what you can and would like to do.

I am confident that you will find the program which Dr. Cooper has scheduled for today and tomorrow to be interesting and challenging. May I admonish you to listen with depth and take away with you ideas which will enhance your professional position and the program in which you are involved!

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1. A. J. Mazurkiewicz, "President's Report to the College Reading Association." Proceedings of College Reading Association, Vol. III, Summer 1962, Easton, Pennsylvania, p. 2.
2. Ibid, p. 3.
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4. Robert C. Auckerman, "President's Address", Proceedings of College Reading Association, Clay A. Ketcham, Editor, Vol. VII, Fall 1966, Easton, Pa., p. 9.

SOME SECOND THOUGHTS ON TEACHING SPEED AND FLEXIBILITY TO COLLEGE FRESHMEN

David J. Yarington
Ohio University

As part of a larger investigation,[1] two questions were posed concerning the time college freshmen spend reading and the differences among the rates of reading in various kinds of material in each week of an academic semester. The answers to these questions, resulting from the most carefully planned and most comprehensive research study of its kind, seemed to imply that college reading teachers might be wasting their time teaching speed reading and flexibility of rate of reading to some freshmen students.

The purpose of the larger study was to determine the number of pages and the kind of reading done by college freshmen and the number of hours devoted to it during an academic year and to relate these factors to the students' aptitude, as measured by the American College Testing Program Battery, and scholastic achievement, as indicated by semester gradepoint averages. For the purpose of this paper, two objectives of the larger study shall be discussed:

1. How much time, in mean hours per week, and mean hours per semester, do college freshmen devote to reading?

2. What are the differences between the mean number of pages read per hour in six different kinds of material, English, Mathematics, Natural Science, Social Science, Humanities, and Unrequired Novels, in each week of an academic semester?

Background

The number of hours of study by college students has been investigated in the past. At least 55 studies dealing with student time expenditure have been published in the past 85 years. Typical of these is the study by Williamson,[2] who reported on the study time of 257 freshmen at the University of Minnesota. The freshmen kept a record of their reading for one week in October, 1929. Williamson found that the freshmen read a mean of 27.09 hours that week. Williamson cited other studies of one week's duration, recording mean number of hours of freshmen reading; not one mean was lower than 18 hours and one was as high as 31.4 hours. More recently, in 1959, Dole[3] stated that 220 University of Hawaii students reported spending a mean of 21.0 hours in preparation for classes during a typical week. As far as the investigator is aware, studies of rates of reading in various subject matter areas of large samples over an academic semester have not been attempted.

Sample

Data were collected at a co-educational midwestern state-assisted university of approximately 14,000 students. Of these, 2,651 were male freshmen who lived in 14 residence dormitories. Approximately ten per cent of these were out-of state students for whom higher entrance standards were required. The freshmen were randomly assigned to the dormitories as they paid their fees. Reading chart forms were completed by 1,060 state resident freshmen during the first semester of the 1965-1966 academic year. Two hundred sixteen out-of -state residents also completed charts, but they were discarded because, having higher entrance standards, the out-of-state freshmen would have prejudiced the homogeneity of the sample had they been included.

The mean ACT composite score of the sample was 23.0, and the mean grade-point average was 2.2. To test for differences between those who completed successful charts and those who chose not to keep charts, t tests were computed and it was found that no significant differences were present between ACT composite scores, but differences significant at the one percent level were present for GPA scores. It was inferred, then, that the students who chose to keep a reading chart were no different in aptitude from those who did not, but concerning GPA score, the students completing the charts seemed to be more ambitious, willing to comply, and interested in the study.

Procedure

Data were collected on time chart forms. Students were instructed to keep a record of all the reading they did for a week, including the titles, authors, number of pages, and number of hours they read in one week. The charts were kept in detail by different randomly chosen dormitory groups of freshmen each week for 14 weeks, sampling the entire freshmen men's dormitory population the first semester, 1965-1966. Freshmen were instructed in keeping the charts at the beginning of each week at an evening meeting. The investigator was very careful to see that the exact same instructions were recited at each meeting. Charts were collected at the end of each week.

Results and Conclusions

Table 1 shows that the mean hours spent reading by freshmen the first semester seems to be about 15 hours. The weekly means ranged from 10 hours to 21 hours. This clearly points out the varia-

TABLE 1

MEAN NUMBER OF HOURS SPENT READING EACH WEEK
BY STATE RESIDENT FRESHMEN DURING
THE FIRST SEMESTER, 1965-1966

Week	N	M	SD
1	74	12.78	8.91
2	95	12.64	6.72
3	72	10.76	6.58
4	53	13.36	7.47
5	136	15.50	9.60
6	49	15.08	7.17
7	55	15.59	8.74
8	74	18.87	16.30
9	74	16.63	9.50
10	107	13.89	9.02
11	83	14.95	7.81
12	73	16.24	13.34
13	77	15.15	7.92
14	38	21.14	12.05
Semester	1060	14.95	9.86

tion in hours of reading per week and points out the absurdity of studying freshmen reading for only one week and generalizing to an academic year. As might be expected, the freshmen spent more time reading the weeks immediately before examinations, but the campus social and vacation calendar did not seem to affect time spent reading by freshmen. The low mean number of hours seems rather disturbing when it is considered that this figure included all of the freshmen reading, not just time in preparation for courses. Time spent reading newspapers, magazines, notes, and unrequired novels was included. In a chapter of a recent book, Raygor[4] noted that freshmen typically have a forty-five hour work week and that they are expected to average two hours of preparation for each week in class.

TABLE 2

F RATIOS FOR SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCES AMONG READING RATES IN SIX MATERIALS FOR STATE RESIDENT FRESHMEN, FIRST SEMESTER 1965-1966

Week	F Ratio
1	3.51**
2	8.73**
3	6.31**
4	5.94**
5	9.62**
6	1.13
7	8.44**
8	9.11**
9	8.21**
10	7.28**
11	11.17**
12	8.47**
13	17.22**
14	0.62

**=Significant at the .01 level

Table 2 indicates the significant F ratios among reading rates, in pages per hour, in six different kinds of materials, English, Mathematics, Natural Science, Social Science, Humanities and Unrequired Novels, during each week of a semester. Significant differences occurred in all weeks but weeks six and fourteen. These two weeks were weeks just prior to mid-term and final exams respectively. Admittedly, the measure of rate is rough. One can only speculate why there are no significant differences among the different materials just before exams. Perhaps the freshmen slowed down their reading in all materials; perhaps they skimmed all the materials very quickly for review. However, there were significant differences present among the different materials in 12 out of the 14 weeks. To find specifically what materials were different from others is the task of another study. The major conclusion that can be drawn from Table 2 is that significant differences did exist among reading rates in different materials in 12 out of 14 weeks of a semester. Though the measure of rate in pages per hour is rough because of so many variables, i.e. pictures, tables, various sizes of page and print, the measure seems to be sufficient to point out that freshmen might be quite flexible in their reading. They seem to read some materials at different rates.

The answers to the two questions posed, that freshmen read a mean of about 15 hours per week, and that freshman reading rates seem to vary statistically in each week of an academic semester, seem to raise several other questions.

1. Are we wasting our time in attempting to teach freshmen to read faster if, if effect, they spend only a mean of about two hours per day reading?

2. Is the complaint that freshmen do not have enough time the result of ineffective scheduling?

3. Are we wasting our time in teaching freshmen to be flexible in their reading rate?

4. Does the nature of the material and the task influence reading rate in college freshmen to such an extent that it is superfluous to teach flexibility?

We teach these skills or try to foster these abilities sometimes because we think and we are told that we must; but must we? Answers to the above questions are not readily available, but they are worth thinking about.

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IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS' READING PROFICIENCY

Alvin J. Stuart
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> How can a child be properly educated by one who has not been properly educated himself? But where is such an extraordinary mortal to be found? I confess I am ignorant . . . Yet suppose this prodigy is found. It is in examining what he ought to do, that we shall see what he ought to be.
>
> Rousseau

What ought teachers of reading to be? In the master-pupil relationship, ought they be paragons of the virtues they seek to inculcate in their pupils? The verb **ought** implies that one is under a moral obligation to be or to do. We may well agree that teachers **ought** to possess many qualities, but when some specific quality is lacking, we frequently overlook that shortcoming and find other desirable traits to emphasize.

In examining closely what the teacher of reading "ought to do," perhaps we ought not be too kind in overlooking his shortcomings in reading ability. Perhaps we ought not forget that imitation has always been a simple and direct means of learning, and that in the master-pupil relationship, factors which motivate the pupil's desire to imitate are of considerable importance.

We would surely agree that a person highly proficient in an art is likely to seek many opportunities to practice that art and to communicate to others particulars of the successful experiences he has had. His continued success evokes an enthusiasm for the art which frequently can be perceived by those with whom the proficient one has contact, without any verbal communication between the parties involved. We have all observed pupils, caught up in the spirit of instruction, emulating the teacher's personal enthusiasm. In this sense, teachers are the "torchlighters" of tomorrow—they do, in fact, often kindle the flames of lifetime interests.

In the important area of reading instruction, it might be argued, quite emphatically, that teachers should be outstanding examples of adult literacy—that they should demonstrate by their personal reading habits the same proficiencies and interests in the world of adult literature that they seek to develop in their pupils with regard to children's literature. In short, they should demonstrate that their own interest in the art of reading has grown from the instructional level to the fullness and maturity of the accomplished adult reader.

The question facing us is: Do teachers of reading typically show this high level of reading proficiency?

A recent study of the reading performances of fifty-five undergraduate students enrolled in the reading methods course at a state university revealed the following mean scores on the **Nelson-Denny Reading Test, Form A:**[1] Vocabulary — 47th %ile, Comprehension — 50th %ile, Total — 48th %ile, and Rate (332 w.p.m.) — 67th %ile, (Grade XV norms used). Such results show that these students who have reached advanced standing in their teacher education program are not, as a group, superior readers. In fact, these data suggest that they tend to read rather superficially. There is no reason to believe that these students are any different from others who will be certified to teach reading in the next few years. Furthermore, empirical evidence gathered during many years of association with experienced elementary teachers does not alter this impression. Chiefly because of this observed need, a component section entitled Teachers' Reading Improvement was made an integral part of **NDEA Institute in Reading** conducted at Ohio University for eight weeks during the summer of 1966.

The complete program of the institute included four other components in addition to the one already mentioned. The other components were entitled: Basic Reading Development, Materials of Instruction, Diagnostic and Corrective Procedures, and Current Emphases in Reading Instruction. These four components met daily, Monday through Thursday, for forty-five minutes each with Fridays reserved for visiting lecturers and consultants or for seminars and conferences. The forty participants in the institute were assigned alphabetically to one of two sections of each of the components. The two sections of the Teachers' Reading Improvement component met for forty-five minutes three times weekly, Tuesday through Thursday.

During the first session of the Reading Improvement sections, Form A of the **Nelson-Denny Reading Test** was administered as a pre-test to determine the participants' initial levels of vocabulary recognition and comprehension as well as their initial reading rates. Throughout the instructional phase of this component, the basic program employed was Witty's **How to Become a Better Reader.**[2] Under the guidance of their instructors, all participants completed the twenty lessons and twenty reading selections contained therein, usually at the rate of one lesson and its accompanying reading selection each day.

Recreational reading by the participants was encouraged through the provision of several hundred works of adult fiction and non-fiction in both hard-backed and paper-backed form. A simple honor sign-out system made it possible for the participants to borrow the books for evening-hour leisure reading. Also during the course of the institute various reading devices were demonstrated, such as the Keystone View Tachistoscope, the EDL Controlled Reader, and the SRA Reading Accelerator. These devices were made available for participant use, but were not employed to any appreciable extent. At the last meeting of the Reading Improvement sections, Form B of the **Nelson-Denny Reading Test** was administered.

The initial **Nelson-Denny Reading Test, Form A** mean scores were as follows: Vocabulary — 48th %ile, Comprehension — 34th %ile, Total — 40th %ile, Rate (296 w.p.m.) — 53rd %ile; the terminal **Form B** scores were: Vocabulary — 63rd %ile, Comprehension — 40th %ile, Total — 52nd %ile, Rate (335 w.p.m.) — 81st %ile. Similar results were obtained in the Progress Records employed with the textbook—Witty's **How to Become a Better Reader:** no significant change was noted in Comprehension scores—16.98 and 17.22—nor Vocabulary—9.04 and 8.79—but the mean rates for the first three and the last three exercises were 294 w.p.m and 342 w.p.m., respectively, about the same as on the **Nelson-Denny** test.

Analyses of these data showed that improvement occurred in four of the seven measures. The t-test appropriate for dependent data was significant at the .05 level for measures of reading rate and vocabulary. The average increase in reading rate was 40 words per minute. While the t-test showed no differences in the mean comprehension scores before and after the instructional efforts, the rate of reading was substantially increased without a loss in comprehension.

The increases in reading speed and vocabulary recognition on the part of the teacher participants reaffirms the fact that adults can improve their reading skills. But perhaps a result just as important can be found in the comments of some of the participants themselves. These experiences helped them, they said, to become aware of their own reading; they were gratified to realize the improvements which were demonstrated over the course of the summer; they expressed the intention to read more in the future— "I feel I am more aware of how to improve both speed and comprehension"; "I've started to read again; I'm going to make time for it"; "The greatest benefit that I have derived from this area of the institute has been the reawakening of my desire to read. Somehow my desire to read had deteriorated to the extent that I might have been termed a nonreader. Since coming to the institute the desire to read has been rekindled to the extent that I am now reading again with enthusiasm. I am hoping that this enthusiasm will 'rub off' on my students and fill them with the same desire for reading that I now have."

The presentation of these observations of improved teacher proficiency in reading should not, of course, be construed as implying some broad, sweeping recommendation for the inclusion of reading improvement components in other teacher education programs. It does however, pose several pertinent questions for us to think about: (1) Why are not elementary teachers typically superior readers? Aside from factors involved in initial selection, are there any "occupational hazards" which induce a measure of reading disability?; (2) To what degree ought teachers be able to demonstrate mastery of the reading skills which they seek to develop in their pupils?; and (3) If a teacher's attitude toward reading is related to her effectiveness in teaching it, might her attitude, and hence her effectiveness, be improved by deliberate efforts to improve her reading skills to some optimum level? The significant increases in reading speed and vocabulary found on the part of our teacher participants reaffirms the fact that adults can improve their reading skills. Their positive statements about the effects of their reading improvement experiences are encouraging. In view of what teachers of reading "ought to do," ought we not help them to become better readers themselves?[3]

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INDUCTION AND ORIENTATION OF BEGINNING AND NEW TEACHERS

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Orientation of teachers new to a school system has always been an important responsibility of the school system. Orientation results from an "awareness that no amount of pre-service training, however good, can be expected to do the entire job of teacher preparation. If we propose to raise the educational standards, the public school, with its climbing enrolments and teachers with widely differing training and experience, must become a laboratory where the teacher's professional training is continued through inservice training and supervisory experience."[1]

The Toledo City School District is composed of eight academic and two vocational high schools enrolling almost seventeen hundred students and sixty-two elementary schools enrolling approximately forty-three thousand students. Except for some shifts in building enrollment due to expressway construction and urban renewal, school population district-wide has remained relatively stable during the past four or five years.

Although the total population has remained relatively stable, the number of teachers employed has not. From year to year, there has been an increase in the total number of teachers employed. Much of the increase has been due to the opening of new schools, to some reduction in class size, to new and more specialized services, and to added supervisory and administrative personnel. A dramatic increase occurred during the past year when programs under Title I of the Elemementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 were implemented. The remedial reading staff, for example, increased from twelve to twenty-nine teachers.

Orientation of teachers new to the Toledo school system begins in the week preceding the opening of school in September. All new teachers attend a series of grade level meetings conducted by members of the supervisory and administrative staff. The curriculum meetings are accompanied by a general orientation meeting and several social affairs during which the new teachers are introduced to the central administrative staff. New teachers also meet in their building with their principal and assistant principal. These meetings offer the teacher an opportunity to become familiar with her school and local community.

The grade level curriculum meetings help the beginning teachers or those new to the school system learn about:

1. The philosophy of the school system
2. The availability and use of curriculum guides
3. Materials that are available and procedures for using them
4. The role of basal readers in the total reading program
5. Supplementary and recreational reading in the curriculum
6. The remedial program and how it relates to classroom instruction
7. Classroom, central, and administrative library facilities
8. Reporting to parents
9. Testing programs and services, and
10. Maintenance of cumulative and other records.

All of the topics listed are not discussed in detail in the meetings preceding the opening of school. But, sufficient information is made available on certain aspects of the instructional program that the teachers can begin the school year with some measure of success.

As the school year progresses, the beginning teachers in Grades One through Six confer individually or meet in small groups with a general curriculum supervisor. One supervisor in the Language Arts is available for Grades Seven and Eight. The small group meetings usually focus attention upon a specific topic such as lesson planning, organizing the class, independent study activities, grading and reporting.

A year ago, the seventh and eighth grade supervisor set up a series of meetings in which experienced and beginning teachers shared ideas and planned varied activities initiating and culminating the study of certain units in their basic text materials.

Several years ago, a series of meetings were scheduled in which beginning and experienced teachers planned an extended literature program. Books were selected, tried out, and put into all classrooms as a result of this series of meetings. Experienced teachers, under the direction of the supervisor, have demonstrated for first-year teachers the procedures they have found successful in reviewing books. For example, some teachers have employed panel discussions in which four or five students who have read the same novel discuss it from several points of view — characterization, theme, or plot. The teachers, too, have shown how the panels were developed, how the students were grouped (since seventh and eighth grade teachers have difficulty in committee or small group work), and how the students chose their books. The supervisors feel that their group meetings are more successful when they focus attention upon a specific topic or skill.

Every supervisor provides opportunities for beginning teachers to observe demonstration lessons and to discuss the lessons with experienced members of the teaching staff. From time to time during the early part of the school year, one or more teachers are excused to visit a pre-arranged demonstration lesson in a school comparable to their school. Frequently, the demonstrated lesson includes the teaching of skills that experienced teachers have found to be difficult for students. Several approaches to lessons may be demonstrated.

Although the general curriculum supervisor bears much of the responsibility for inducting new teachers, the principal and assistant principals, too, assist in the process on a daily basis. In fact, one of the chief functions of the assistant principal is to provide direct assistance to new and beginning teachers. The remedial reading teachers frequently help beginning teachers, particularly those in Grades Two through Six, by sharing information about pupils participating in the special instruction. The remedial teacher often plans with the classroom teacher the activities a child might pursue in the classroom. She suggests, informally, techniques and methods the classroom teacher can employ in teaching certain skills. This sharing of information is an added contribution or fringe benefit of a good remedial program. It is also another approach to assisting beginning teachers.

Assistance is provided the beginning teacher in using classroom library materials. For the past six years, five titles have been selected annually for each grade level. The children's literature consultant, a librarian, introduces each year's new books via our educational television station. This information is designed for both the teacher and the pupil. Prior to the telecast, lesson sheets containing information about the lesson and references to other books are sent to the classroom teacher.

During the past two years, under the direction of the Language Arts Supervisor, we have been experimenting with new materials and techniques to improve instruction in Grades Seven and Eight. As part of the procedure, a teacher leader was selected for each building. The leader works closely with the supervisor coordinating the activities of the Language Arts teachers in his building. In actual practice, the supervisor works with the leaders who, in turn, work directly with the building teachers. The leaders maintain regularly scheduled meetings within their buildings. We find a good deal of merit in this procedure. Without it, the supervisor would be spread thinly over the schools. Contact is more frequent and more direct. The procedure, too, has created better rapport among the teachers and with the supervisor.

Beginning teachers as well as experienced teachers share in activities planned for all or part of the staff. Such activities as curriculum study committees, workshops, consultant services, educational television programs, experimental use of new materials and techniques, and activities of professional groups — our primary, intermediate, and junior high councils, for example — contribute to the induction and growth of the beginning teacher.

Since last September our school system has engaged in a comprehensive study of instruction in the Language Arts. We decided, in planning our study, that it would be incomplete if we merely examined defects in our present program, informed the committee of new directions, and selected additional or new materials. We felt that as many staff members as possible should be involved in our activities. In this way, we could prepare the staff for necessary changes and instruction, upgrade present teaching, and change attitudes toward teaching the Language Arts.

More than 150 teachers and administrators work on various subcommittees of the study. Moreover, we include as many other members of the staff as we can. We encourage the participation of all teachers and administrators in meetings involving consultants, speakers, and demonstrations. Two weeks ago, a consultant worked with several classes in one of our schools. More than 98 teachers — not all members of the study committee — were released by their principals to attend one or more of the sessions. Committee members take back to their schools information, courses of study from other schools, publications that have been developed in the NCTE demonstration centers, books and related materials. We have called upon all supervisory personnel to share ideas and to react to proposals.

Last fall, we instituted some major changes in our developmental reading program. We selected, purchased, and distributed to eleven of our elementary schools, approximately one hundred thousand dollars worth of basic and supplementary reading materials. The materials were placed in classrooms so that teachers could adjust materials to the instructional levels of the pupils. A continuous progress format was planned and placed in operation. A series of meetings were held with the principals of the buildings and then with the teachers to implement the plan. Three remedial reading specialists were released from some of their teaching responsibilities to work directly with the principals and teachers. The specialists have assisted in grouping, testing, interpreting tests, adjusting materials, developing activities, demonstrating and teaching specific techniques, etc. Adjustments have been made in reporting to parents, as well as other aspects of instruction. Many of the teachers in the eleven schools are first- or second-year teachers.

I have identified only the more important activities that we have engaged in during the past few years. There have been additional activities, but this is true of all school systems. It should be apparent that beginning teachers have many opportunities to develop, to grow, to build upon their pre-service training.

This year, our newly-employed teachers came from colleges in twenty-seven different states. To some extent, their pre-service programs differed in composition and quality. In order to compensate for obvious variations in pre-service information, I have wondered, from time to time, if we should not plan a series of meetings extending over the first semester in which all beginning teachers would review essential aspects of the teaching of reading and other Language Arts areas. We would, of course, need additional personnel or a change in responsibility of present personnel to accomplish this task.

Another aspect of our orientation and in-service procedures that concerns many of us is the number of meetings that new teachers attend. A cursory review of our weekly schedule would show that almost every beginning teacher has a heavy schedule of professional meetings during the school year. Administrative meetings, lectures and discussions in varied curriculum areas, and meetings of professional groups call for active participation week-by-week throughout the year.

Still another area of concern is that of the placement of beginning teachers. Primarily, beginning teachers are placed in the core area of the school system. It is here that vacancies occur. We have an obligation to teachers placed in core area schools to help them teach successfully in such schools. We are not meeting this obligation adequately.

Frequently, we overlook another essential part of our school personnel — the beginning substitute teacher. Certainly she needs orientation and induction to our instructional procedures. We have made some, but limited, contributions to the orientation of the substitute staff.

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ABSTRACT

INDIVIDUALIZED SUPERVISION

Carol O'Connell
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Many articles appear today in the literature concerning individual differences. We talk about humanizing the curriculum and allow for self-actualization in our supervision. But in reality do we do this?

It is time to do more than just talk about it. A good place to start is with the teachers. If they are given more of an opportunity to voice their talents among their colleagues, then this will carry into the classroom environment. As supervisors it is our responsibility to provide an atmosphere that encourages teachers to make decisions and stretch their mental ability.

Sensitivity to human beings, if not an innate quality, must be learned and practiced. As educators we must practice what we preach. This type of behavior is watched and action is followed. Since the trend in education is to provide for the individuality of each person, then each person must be recognized as possessing strengths that are beneficial to the profession in which he serves.

CLINICAL PROCEDURES

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Although the total physical plant of the Wittenberg University Reading Center is small, being limited to one remodeled classroom in the Department of Education, it is operating to the advantage of many. The general aim is to give selected undergraduate students many practical teaching experiences in remedial reading and to provide resources for the surrounding schools and pupils needing remedial reading instruction.

The Reading Center, as presently operating, is divided into three basic functions:

1. The Wittenberg University Reading Clinic.
2. The Wittenberg University Reading Center Services to Schools.
3. The Wittenberg University Reading Research Center.

Since my topic is restricted to 'Clinical Procedures," I shall not note the two other functions of the Center, but confine my remarks to describing the Reading Clinic.

The raison d'etre of this section of the Reading Center is to provide selected undergraduate elementary education majors with guided practical experience in teaching remedial reading. These students are selected on the basis of faculty recommendations and classroom performance in methods courses. Among the factors considered are: the student's general attitude toward the teaching profession; demonstrated evidence of maturity; acceptance of responsibility: and above average achievement.

Sophomores, juniors, and seniors may be invited to participate but preference is given to sophomores and juniors because of the extended training required and services to be rendered. Although students who are selected for the program must enroll in the course, Remedial Reading Practicum and Seminar, no academic credit is given.

Children needing remedial reading instruction are offered this on a first-come-first-served basis. No distinction is made regarding sex, race, religion, or economic status. Any pupil in grades one through eight may be accepted. However, he must have adequate intelligence (I.Q. 90+) and he must be reading a year or more below his capabilities. Furthermore, he must not be emotionally disturbed nor unwilling to receive the instruction.

The Testing Program. In general, this consists of reading tests and tests of mental maturity. The specific tests to be administered are determined by the Director of the Reading Center in conference with the pupil's remedial reading teacher. Most of these are standardized group tests because they are the types that will be administered by the elementary teacher in the self-contained classroom. Included are the California Test of Mental Maturity, Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests, Gates Reading Survey, Iowa Silent Reading Tests and similar items. We also use the Learning Methods Test, by the Mills Center, Inc., Ft. Lauderdale, and the Goodenough-Harris Drawing Test as well as the Durkin- Meshover Phonics Knowledge Survey.

It is explained to the remedial reading teacher how the testing program sequence is to be carried out and she is free to determine the specifics. Other tests may be administered if the director and/or the teacher deem it necessary.

When the tests have been scored, the teacher and director use the results to plan a remedial reading instructional program for the pupil. Parents are notified of the general nature of the test results and the proposed remedial reading program.

The Reading Program. The typical remedial reading program for a pupil usually follows this pattern: rapid word recognition, reading for meaning, skill improvement and experimental procedures. Among these are perceptual exercises including stress on directionality, ocular motility and plank walking. It also includes Howard-Dolman Instrument training. However, the specific format and content for a given pupil depend entirely on his particular reading problems. Each instructional program is unique and individualized.

Pupils meet with their remedial reading teachers twice each week: Monday and Wednesday or Tuesday and Thursday. They meet for one forty-five minute period either at 3:30 or at 4:30 P.M. Although late afternoon may not be the best time for such intense instruction, the pupils must meet after their regular school hours. Friday afternoons are reserved for seminars: one for the trained remedial reading teachers beginning at 3:30 P.M., and one for the students in training meeting at 4:30 P.M.

Generally, remedial reading instruction for a pupil will continue until he has overcome his reading problems and is reading at a level commensurate with his capacity. Periodic checks on reading achievement are made throughout the year and pupils are usually tested in September, February, and May.

At the close of each academic term, a letter of progress is written by the pupil's reading teacher and sent to the parents. A carbon copy is kept in the pupil's cumulative folder and each letter is checked by the director before it is mailed.

When a pupil progresses to the point where he is reading as well as can be expected, he is released from the Reading Clinic and an appropriate letter is sent to his parents. The letter is composed by the remedial reading teacher and countersigned by the director.

The Training Program. When a university student is invited to participate in the remedial reading instructional program, he is required to observe for one term. The "observation" consists of attending one clinical instruction session per week and following the progress of a chosen pupil for the balance of the term. He is also required to attend one seminar per week. While observing in the clinic, the student becomes acquainted with the pattern of remedial reading instruction and sees how lessons are given. During seminars, students discuss their observation experiences and questions are forthcoming. After questions have been answered, the balance of the period is utilized in an in-depth acquaintance of students with remedial reading materials and equipment. Moreover, they are taught how to construct lesson plans and to keep anecdotal records. When a student has satisfactorily completed his term of observation, he is then assigned a pupil to teach.

A major part of each student's training is devoted to a thorough conceptualization of the Reading Matrix. Experience has demonstrated that pupils needing remedial reading instruction are exceedingly deficient in the use of those clues that will enable them to read with facility. Remedial reading teachers are taught how to teach pupils the use of picture, configuration, context, structural, and phonetic clues so that ultimately the pupil's reading improves. Not only will his comprehension increase, but so will his ability to interpret what he has read and this, of course leads to his greater appreciation of reading not only as a tool for greater learning, but also for himself personally.

Experimentation and Innovation. It is not only the responsibility but it is also the duty for institutions of higher learning to point the way that others may follow in the light of properly executed research. To this end the Reading Clinic has been engaged in the practical application of ideas appearing in the literature. We have experimented with almost all of the NEA recommended approaches to reading instruction and have come to the conclusion that all have a salutary effect on pupil's reading achievement. However, we have noticed that not all approaches work best with all pupils and, as a result, we have relearned the truism that pupils are selective in their acceptance of reading instruction. Moreover, the recommended approaches can be readily synthesized into the three basic teaching methods that educators have known for years. These include the auditory, visual and kinesthetic avenues of learning.

Yet we had the feeling that something had been left out or was missing in our thinking and it is only within recent months that we have been in a position to delineate this. From what we have learned of past instructional methods and approaches we have come to an eclectic situation in which full attention is given to each pupil's perceptual status. The term proposed here is "Perceptual Gestalt." In our work with retarded readers we are attempting to train the Perceptual Gestalt of each pupil so that the total complex operates at a higher level of sensitivity. We know that reading is a perceptual process, therefore if the pupil can be trained to perceive more accurately and with greater rapidity, it should follow that his reading achievement and proficiency would grow apace.

The initial small sample study was undertaken during the 1964-65 academic year and was reported in the March 1966 issue of **The Journal of the Reading Specialist.** During the 1965-66 academic year a pilot study with first graders was executed. An account of this research is to appear in a forthcoming issue of the **Journal.**

One class of thirty pupils was used as the experimental group and two other first grades were used as controls. We administered pretests of vision, reading, mental, maturity, and visual tactual perception.

The training program with the experimental group consisted of teaching each pupil to become more accurate in rod alignment using the Howard-Dolman Test of Depth Perception. The initial training distance from pupil to instrument was five feet. Each child was requested to pull on the actuating cords and align the rods. He was appraised of his error and told to try again for a total of ten trials. Those pupils who became more proficient at the task from the five foot distance were moved back to the ten foot distance. Those who became proficient in rod alignment at the ten foot distance were subsequently removed to the fifteen foot distance.

It was to be expected that, at the conclusion of the twelve week training period, the pupils in the experimental group would have reached varying degrees of proficiency in rod alignment. Individual differences being what they are, some pupils had progressed to the fifteen foot distance, while some were still at the initial training distance of five feet.

Post tests of reading, intelligence, and visual-tactual-perception revealed that, apparently, the original premise was in error. Critical Ratios for the reading factors were not significant nor were those for mental maturity. However, an examination of the pretest post test responses of the experimental group on the non-language section of the test of mental maturity showed a difference of 15.47 points. The Critical Ratio amounted to 4.72 and was significant at the .01 level of confidence.

Comparison of performance with the Howard-Dolman instrument indicated, as anticipated, that the experimental group was significantly more accurate in rod alignment than were the control groups. They were more accurate in all three factors, plus, minus, and total error.

Non-objective evaluation on the part of the teacher of the experimental group indicated that pupil handwriting performance was generally about a year in advance of normal expectations. Furthermore, reading reversal tendencies among pupils seemed to be much less than would ordinarily be expected for this age-grade level. Unfortunately, there are no objective measures of this available and one must be circumspect in drawing conclusions from such educated, but nevertheless subjective evaluations.

Where does this leave us? Perhaps we are on the threshhold of a new approach to this recurring, persistent problem of attacking the factors operating against pupil perceptual proficiency and reading achievement. Perhaps not. Nevertheless, the investigation should continue on a large scale for a prolonged period of time. Factors such as average age-level performance, accuracy plateaus, and the effects of continuous classroom training warrant further consideration.

The major concept, still in the formative stage, may be called the Perceptual Approach to Reading. This means that all factors relating to the Individual Perceptual Gestalts of pupils must be identified and trained to their greatest sensitivity. These, along with proper environmental conditions and instructional procedures for pupils could ultimately lead to greater achievement for all.

Conclusions. Of necessity the foregoing presentation has been brief and cursory. Time limitations preclude more than a mere glance at our efforts in reading. All of our work is limited to the undergraduate level. Nevertheless, we believe that we are offering our students and the community a program of considerable merit. It is flexible, exacting, and requires constant attention to assure that it operates at the advanced level demanded by any institution of higher learning. Modeover, we have just begun to utilize our potential.

TIME, SPACE AND DYSLEXIA: CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM FACTORS IN READING DISABILITY

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Human behavior occurs in a matrix of time and space. Space involves the dimensions of distance, area, and volume; time is often referred to as the "fourth dimension," a dimension which is inextricably bound to the other three. Millikan[1] has noted that space and time "are not at bottom independent of each other" and in Einstein's relativity theory evey object is a four-dimensional structure traveling in the four-dimension world of space-time.[2]

Space is generally thought of as the three-dimensional extension in which objects and events exist, occur, and have relative position and direction. Time is regarded as the measurable period during which an action, process, or condition exists, occurs, and continues. Both time and space are hypothetical constructs; as such, they are dependent upon human perception and human conceptualization for their definition and use.

Some cultures view time as linear, as evolving, as proceeding in direct temporal sequence which involve cause and effect relationships. Other cultures see time as cyclical, as repeating itself, as operating in a rhythm, the events of which are often acausal and synchronous. Scientific investigations indicate that both notions may have some validity; Darwin's theory of evolution supports the concept of linear time while Heisenberg's uncertainty principle, to some extent, negates it.

Space is perceived differently as different times and in different places. The fact that perspective and vista were introduced into Western painting only a few hundred years ago suggests a subtle change in culturally-influenced visual perception at that time. Certain primitive tribes, such as the Xingu Indians of Brazil, have never developed binocularity (the ability to use both eyes in a coordinated way); the fact that their culture affords them few experiences which would encourage the coordination of both eyes leaves the natives inept when they attempt complex near-point work such as painting and drawing. This factor accounts, in part, for the absence of a written language among the Xingu tribe.

Time and space are important concepts for the individual child to develop and to understand. However, in highly civilized as well as in primitive societies, many children have no interest in future events, no mastery of the difference between "up" and "down," no clear conceptualization of "past" as opposed to "present." Other children can not perceive their world in three spatial dimensions (lacking, as they do, the perception of depth) and still others do not possess adequate left-to-right progression when reading a book (often because they have poor concepts of their "left" and "right" body parts). This failure to master the culture's temporal and spatial constructs adversely affects the child in many ways; it is an especially severe impediment in the development of language processes.

Mastering Receptive and Expressive Language

The infant's development of language begins at the approximate age of nine months with what Lewis[3] has called a "first understanding of words." This is receptive language in the form of listening. By the age of one year, most children have spoken their first word; this is the beginning of speech, a form of expressive language. Some writers feel that "inner language," which is egocentric rather than social in nature, precedes both listening and speaking. In the American culture, two other forms of language — reading and writing — are introduced when the child enters school. Children can often learn reading and writing skills at earlier ages, but controversy exists as to the wisdom of this practice.

Listening and reading are basically receptive in nature; in both, information filters into the organism for processing. Speaking and writing are basically expressive in nature as data emerge from the organism in the form of spoken and written words. There can be combinations of both processes; oral reading involves receptive as well as expressive functions.

Receptive language may be thought of as combining two phases: perception (the understanding of one's sensory experience as influenced by expectancy set, background, and personality) and conceptualization (the interpretation of one's perceptions so that sensory data can be utilized). Reading achievement tests that measure both word recognition and reading comprehension tap into perception in the former instance and conceptualization in the latter.

Perception consists of acuity (sensory keenness as demonstrated by the child with 20/20 sight), discrimination (as demonstrated by a child who can auditorially perceive that "pit" and "pet" are two different words), analysis (as when a pupil breaks a word into its component parts), and synthesis (as when a pupil blends a number of sounds together to produce a whole word).

Conceptualization requires proficiency in attention (the ability to focus consciousness and to maintain awareness over a period of time), recall (the remembrance of what has been experienced), comparison (as when an incoming perception is matched with the individual's storehouse of past perceptions), and abstraction (as when an individual utilizes a word as a ssymbol for an object or an event, or when he makes the notation of a quality apart from a single object — such as "whiteness").

Expressive language involves idea formation (the representation in the mind of ideas, thoughts, images, and symbols) and motor function (the direct issue of ideas, thoughts, images, and symbols in action utilizing the body musculature).

Idea formation consists of symbolization (as when a child puts a feeling, mood, or experience into verbal or graphic symbols), imagery (as when a pupil formulates a mental picture of some object that is not present), revisualization (as when an individual "re-sees" a word in the "mind's eye"), and reauditorization (as when someone "re-hears" a word in the "back of the mind"). Motor function involves construction (as when a pupil temporarily arranges oral verbal symbols in speech or spatially arranges written verbal symbols on paper) and control (the correct articulation and pronunciation of oral verbal symbols: the legible and accurate writing of letters and words with regard for their size, slope, and other spatial characteristics).

Myklebust[4] has spoken of "integrities for learning"; it is likely that a child's central nervous system (i.e., the brain and spinal cord) is the most important integrity for all four of the language processes.

Another important integrity is the peripheral nervous system which consists of the cranial and spinal nerves: these nerves terminate in the receptor cells in man's sense organs. Four of man's fourteen senses are especially critical for language: sense, sight, kinesthesia (the "feeling" sense which is dependent upon receptors in the muscles, tendons, and joints), and tactile pressure (with receptors in the skin). Less important are the ten senses — smell, taste, balance, pain, heat, cold, vibration, two-point discrimination, the visceral sense, and the sense of nearness.

While the peripheral nervous system is of crucial importance for listening and reading, the body's skeletal muscular system is important for speaking and writing. The latter two language processes are expressive rather than receptive in nature and require properly functioning muscles for the child to articulate (with his tongue, vocal folds, etc.) and to write (with his fingers, wrists, etc.). The voluntary musculature of the skeletal system is striated muscle; although most striated muscle is concerned with expressive language, the eye muscles are utilized in reading which is a receptive activity.

The fourth integrity for language development is the child's autonomic nervous system which controls the involuntary smooth muscles of the gastrointestinal tract and cardiovascular system, as well as the glandular secretions.

In addition, there are three integrities which arise from the interaction of organism and environment: emotional status, cultural status, and educational status. Other integrities also reflect interaction but to a lesser extent.

A child with a hypothyroid condition is likely to lack energy for the learning process and be too sluggish to do well academically. This reflects a disorder in the autonomic nervous system and in the child's biochemical integrity. A child suffering from acute anxiety due to psychosexual problems will not be able to concentrate adequately during classroom instruction; this indicates malfunctioning of the emotional integrity. A pupil who enters the first grade from a slum area might have no idea what the teacher means when she refers to "books," "pencils," and "paper." This child would be suffering from improper background in the cultural integrity. A pupil who has been the victim of large classes, poor teachers, inadequate materials, and a lack of individualized instruction would manifest problems in the educational integrity.

A pupil with eye disease or with structural defects of the eye would lack integrity of the peripheral nervous system. A crippled child would lack integrity in bodily musculature, while a brain-injured child would be suffering from a disorder in central nervous system integrity. There is a minimum level of wholeness, or integral development, needed in each integrity for learning before the child can master speech, reading, listening, and writing.

Dyslexia: Developmental and Post-Traumatic

Despite the central nervous system's position as the most important integrity for learning, it is neglected and overlooked by parents, teachers, and physicians when a child is identified as a disabled reader. It is ironic that those few centers, clinics, and professional workers who have devoted attention to the brain and its function in the diagnosis and remediation of reading difficulties are often attacked by other professional workers. Frequently, these critics maintain that "all reading disability is emotional in nature," that "poor readers have missed out on phonics," or some other simplistic explanation.

Learning disabilities stemming from central nervous system dysfunction may be divided into two general categories: post-traumatic and developmental. In the post-traumatic cases, a portion of the brain has sustained physical injury; nerve cells have been destroyed, severed, or otherwise damaged. The traumatic event may have occurred pre-natally (before birth), paranatally (during birth), or postnatally (after birth).

In the developmental cases, the child has not sustained central nervous system damage. In these cases there are anomalies of growth, rather than insult to the brain, which have resulted in brain dysfunction. Various writers have studied these problems: Hermann[5] has described them as "congenital word blindness," Rabinovitch[6] as "disorganized neurological development," and Olson[7] as "developmental lag." Critchley[8] has used the term "developmental dyslexia" to refer to those individuals whose reading difficulty is due to congenital factors and improper growth rather than to frank injury or insult to the brain.

Sometimes children may be suffering from dyslexia of both the developmental and post-traumatic types. In others, there is difficulty determining one from the other on the basis of electroencephalographic, neurological, and psychological tests. Nevertheless, both conditions can produce problems in reading as well as in other language functions.

An individual whose brain dysfunction has resulted in a disorder of listening is said to be suffering from "receptive asphasia." If speech is affected, the problem is termed "expressive aphasia." "Dysgraphia" is a disorder of writing caused by brain dysfunction while- "dyslexia" is a reading disability rooted in central nervous system defect. The receptive difficulties (receptive aphasia and dyslexia) are often referred to by the general term, "agnosia," while the expressive difficulties (expressive aphasia and dysgraphia) are subsumed under the term "apraxia."

Phonemes, Graphemes, and Language

An understanding of the time-space milieu is essential to the understanding of language disabilities. Speaking and listening involve perceptual skills that deal with phonemes, morphemes, and other linguistic units that account for meaningful differences in oral language. These units occur in time rather than in space: when we say "you look at people," we mean something quite different than when we say "people look at you." The words are the same; what differs is their order in time.

A similar phenomenon occurs within words. The syllables "tur" and "pin," when joined together, may evoke the memory of Ben Turpin, the late American actor. The same syllables, arranged in a different time sequence as "Pinter," may bring to mind Harold Pinter, the English playwright. In some types of receptive aphasia, one's time sequence is juggled so that parts of words or parts of sentences are perceived in odd and incorrect sequences: thus, the basic meaning of the word or sentence is lost and communication fails.

Perceptual synthesis difficulties often relate to time sequence as when, on an auditory blending test or exercise, a child incorrectly blends "d-i-s-c" ("disc") as "s-c-i-d" ("skid"), or "p-r-o" ("pro") as "r-o-p" ("rope"). In these instances, phonemes lend themselves to entirely different meanings depending upon their temporal ordering.

Time sequence is not the only factor involved in oral language disabilities: auditory acuity, auditory discrimination, auditory recall, and reauditorization are also important. However, these four oral language skills have their counterparts in written language skills (visual acuity, visual discrimination, visual recall, revisualization) while temporal sequencing does not. Instead, the position in space of a letter, word, or phrase assumes major importance in written language.

The grapheme is the linguistic unit that makes a meaningful difference in written language. Although "pit," "quit," "bit," and "dit" are members of the same "word family," in each case the first letter becomes a grapheme which causes each word to assume a different meaning. The dyslexic child who suffers from spatial confusion might well perceive "p," "q," "b," and "d" in the same way. After all, a cup is still a cup whether the handle faces top right, top left, bottom right, or bottom left. The child who is "lost in space," insofar as written language is concerned, is in the same predicament as any one of us would be who found himself in a strange country where an upside down cup had an entirely different name and an entirely different use than a "right side up" cup.

The child with "literal dyslexia" has difficulty making proper space orientations with single letters and often confuses "p" and "q," "b" and "d," "M" and "W." He often is unable to read single letters and frequently reverses (i.e., perceives from right to left) or rotates (i.e., perceivess from bottom to top) letters and letter combinations.

The child with "verbal dylexia" has trouble making proper space orientations with words and may read "was" as "saw" or "tops" as "spot." This child can usually read single letters correctly and may even be able to give the correct sounds for consonants and diphthongs (unlike the child with literal dyslexia). However, the pupil with verbal dyslexia has trouble identifying the word even when he can individually identify the component letters in the word; the defect in these cases is at a neurologically higher level of perceptual functioning, such as synthesis — putting a number of letters together to form the whole word.

A child with "psycholexia" has conceptualization problems and may do poorly with word meanings, paragraph comprehension, abstractions, or generalizations. This pupil may be functioning adequately on the perceptual levels, but may do poorly on the higher neurological levels that involve concept-formation. Spatial difficulties for this child may manifest themselves in a reluctance to play with dolls, model trains, and other toys which demand an association between larger scale, real-life objects and smaller scale, "make-believe" objects. In academic subjects, the psycholexic child may have difficulties in reading charts, graphs, maps, and other materials that are representational in nature. Answers to comprehension questions on tests are liable to be concrete and literal rather than abstract and imaginative.

A child's development of spatial knowledge proceeds from orientation on his body, through orientation for right and left on a person facing oneself, to orientation for right and left together with "going" and "coming" in one's daily behavior. In other words, the child must learn how to construct space regarding his own body and then project this knowledge outside of his body.

The mere presence of deficits in space orientation is not by itself sufficient to cause reading disability; children with Turner's syndrome (a genetic disorder) were found by Alexander and Money[9] to have poor directional orientation but adequate reading skills. The problems in space orientation typically displayed by dyslexic pupils are associated with disorders in the areas, circuits, and functions of the brain which mediate language.

Many theories have been introduced in an attempt to explain the neurological mechanisms which account for problems in space orientation among large numbers of children with central nervous system dysfunctions.

Costa[10] for example, has stressed the failure of "set" among brain-injured individuals, a failure which distorts perceptions and delays the formation of accurate conceptualizations. Thomas[11] has postualated a "supervisor" which controls output and whose work is impaired by brain dysfunction. Most specialists agree that youngsters with central nervous system handicaps differ from other children in quantitative rather than qualitative ways.

Problems in Diagnosis

The identification of central nervous system factors in reading disability is a **medical** procedure, theoretically. Unfortunately, few medical schools include even one lecture on reading disability in their curricula, much less a course or a practicum on diagnosis of language disorders. As a result, a bitter feud often rages between physicians (neurologists, pediatricians, ophthalmologists, psychiatrists, etc.) on the one hand and non-physicians (psychologists, reading specialists, optometrists, etc.) on the other concerning who is best able to diagnose and assist the dyslexic child. From a practical point of view, it is clear that interdisciplinary efforts are required because few professional people are able to evaluate the child's status in each of the relevant integrities for learning.

Psychiatric, medical, and neurological examinations are useful from the standpoint of identification and are helpful when psychotherapy, surgery, or pharmacological treatment is advisable. A clinician or teacher, however, can not rely on a medical report for advice concerning remediation. Unfortunately, even psychologists often fail to give the teacher direction; a common complaint has been that a diagnostic study leaves the teacher as confused and helpless as before the testing was inaugurated.

In recent years, a number of psychological tests have appeared which show promise in the diagnosis and treatment of dyslexia. When a trained professional worker administers these tests, he must remember that diagnosis is the first step in remediation. Therefore, the final diagnostic report must contain advice concerning the rehabilitation of the child and a description of the pupil's strengths as well as his weaknesses.

The Haeussermann Evaluation of Intellectual, Sensory, and Emotional Functioning[12] is designed for the child between two and six years of age. This approach proceeds from higher levels of adaptive organization to lower ones, from abstract relationse to concrete events. If the child does not succeed at a given level, the clinician proceeds to determine the perceptual, motivational, experimental, or intellectual reasons for that failure. The clinician also attempts to discover what adaptations can be made in the test item which would enable the child to succeed. As a result, the evaluation produces a descriptive and interpretive statement regarding the child's capacities, functioning abilities, and developmental potential. This statement can serve as a guide for rehabilitation remediation, and training.

The Myklebust Picture Story Language Test[13] is another measure which can be utilized by a specialist in language disorders. Applicable to all age levels, the test measures three aspects of language which are essential for effective communication: productivity (the length of the expression), syntax (the correctness of the expression), and the abstractness (or concreteness) of the ideation being expressed. Myklebust defines language as "symbol-making behavior" and notes that all communication is not in the form of language.

The Money Road-map Test of Direction Sense[14] is a technique designed to measure the development of directional sense in children from the ages of 7 to 18. It tests the ability to orient oneself to right and left, toward and away from, and then to translate this orientation on to a two-dimensional plane.

The Minnesota Percepto-Diagnostic Test[15] was devised by Fuller and Laird in an attempt to differentiate cases of reading disability in terms of etiology. Using terminology proposed by Rabinovitch[16] the authors view "organic" cases as those in which the physiological capacity to read has been impaired by frank brain damage. In "primary" cases, the capacity to learn to read is impaired without specific evidence of brain injury; a disturbed pattern of neurological organization is felt to be the causal factor in this group. In "secondary" cases, the physiological capacity to learn to read is intact but is not utilized sufficiently due to emotional problems and unfavorable educational experiences. Krippner[17] reported a successful project in which this test was used to separate post-traumatic dyslexics ("organic" cases) from developmental dyslexics ("secondary" cases).

The Predictive Index[18] resulted from a research study conducted by de Hirsch, Jansky, and Langford. It combines such well-known tests as the Bender Visuo-Motor Gestalt, the Wepman Auditory Discrimination Test, the Horst Reversals Test, and the Gates Word Matching Test, with such simple tasks as pencil use, story telling, word categorization, word recognition, and word production. When administered to kindergarten children, this index was found to be highly effective in predicting those who would fail in reading.

The Gesell Behavior Tests[19] were devised to measure school readiness and developmental status. They require the child to copy geometric forms, complete a picture of a man, discriminate between right and left, name animals, state a number of interest preferences, print his name and address, and differentiate among a number of visual forms. Supplementary are the observation of the child's teething, a visual examination, an evaluation of his reading ability, and the administration of the Lowenfield Mosaic Test and the Rorschach Technique.

The Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities[20] include a total of nine subtests. Two of these (visual decoding, auditory decoding) are primarily involved with receptive language, two (vocal encoding, motor encoding) with expressive language, two (auditory-vocal sequential, visual-motor sequential) with rote memory, and three (auditory-vocal association, visual-motor association, auditory-vocal automatic) with information processing. Although highly controversial, this test has become one of the most widely-used instruments in the diagnosis of children with learning disabilities, many professional workers base remedial suggestions upon the findings of this measure.

The Doman-Delacato Developmental Profile[21] evaluates a child's neurological status by testing his competence in mobility, language, manual skills, vision, audition, and tactilism. The most controversial of the newer measures, this test lacks adequate standardization data but has demonstrated a high degree of effectiveness operationally in several research projects.[22]

In many parts of the country, a specialist is not available to diagnose a child. In these instances, a well-trained teacher can utilize a number of tests which have demonstrated their utility in the remediation of learning disabilities.

The Neurological Organization Evaluation Form[23] is based on the studies done at the Institutes for the Achievement of Human Potential and concerns itself with four anatomical areas of the brain: medulla, pons, midbrain, and cortex. If the medulla or pons is damaged, it is not likely that the child would be capable of attending school; therefore, the test begins at the midbrain level.

Dysfunction of the midbrain is indicated if the pupil can not creep in cross pattern (with the right hand left knee striking the floor at the same time and the left hand and right knee striking the floor simultaneously). Other tests of midbrain functioning involve eye tracking (of an object held by the pupil) and writing.

In testing cortex functioning, it is noted whether or not the pupil walks in cross pattern with the opposite hand and foot moving forward at the same time. Eye tracking (of an object held by the examiner) is also measured. Cortical hemispheric dominance is evaluated on the basis of handedness, footedness, eyedness, and posture.

Remedial programs are initiated at the lowest level of neurological development at which the child fails. Two films, "The Diagnosis of Speech and Reading Problems" and "The Treatment of Speech and Reading Problems," have been prepared to assist the teacher in this work. Careful teacher preparation is necessary for use of this form.

The Perceptual Forms Test[24] is part of a perceptual training program devised for beginning school children by Spache and others.[25] Either individually or in groups, the request is made to copy a number of geometric forms. In individual testing, a small booklet is used; for group testing, large posters are utilized. The forms include a circle, a cross, a square, a triangle, a divided rectangle, a horizontal diamond, and a vertical diamond. The teacher is told that the odds are six to one that a child (in the five to seven age group) who scores below the cutoff point on this test will do poorly in school.

The Pate-Webb First Grade Screening Test[26] is designed to identify children who will not make sufficient progress during their first year of school to be ready for the second grade. It involves learning problems based on intellectual deficiency and emotional disturbance as well as central nervous system dysfunction.

The Frostig Developmental Test of Visual Perception[27] diagnoses operational problems in vision. The five areas tested are eye-hand coordination, figure-ground perception, perception of form constancy, perception of position in space, and perception of spatial relationship. Remedial materials are available to assist growth and development in each of these five areas. In some instances, the remedial program must start with activities which develop bodily awareness because many reading skills depend fundamentally upon accurate perception and knowledge of the body itself.

The Purdue Perceptual-Motor Survey[28] allows the teacher to observe a broad spectrum of behavior and to evaluate it properly. The authors of this survey, Roach and Kephart, have stated that the main purpose of the advice "is to provide the teacher with a tool which can be used to identify those children who do not possess perceptual-motor abilities necessary for acquiring academic skills by the usual instructional methods."[29] The tasks required of the child involve generalized movement, reflex activities, movement patterns, laterality, perceptual-motor matching, directional knowledge, and concept formation.

The Meeting Street School Test for Learning Disorders[30] was designed by Denhoff and is still in an experimental form. The test items were devised for teacher administration; a manual and films are available. A 15-minute version of the device is suggested for screening purposes and a 40-minute diagnostic version is recommended for the identification of perceptual and motor difficulties associated with neurologically-based learning problems.

No teacher should make a diagnosis of dyslexia on the basis of any of these tests. In fact, it is doubtful whether the diagnosis of dyslexia should be made by anyone but a medical specialist operating in an interdisciplinary research facility. All too often, a teacher links the term "dyslexic" with the notion of a hopeless condition, abandoning her attempt to assist the pupil.

Patterns of Remediation

For many years, there was a dearth of ideas in regard to remediation for dyslexic children. The approaches of Itard, Seguin, and Montessori were ignored; the contributions of Orton, Fernald, Gillingham, Strauss, and Lehtinen were overlooked. At the present time, however, the situation is reversed and a number of methods are competing with each other for attention. Despite the fact that Montessori began her work at the turn of the century, the first Montessori school in America was not opened until 1958. The first piece of controlled research was reported by Argy[31] in 1965. At the beginning of a two-year program, Argy assigned Montessori teachers to 40 brain-injured pre-school children while another 31 children received a more orthodox and traditional educational approach to neurological impairment. The walls of the two classrooms contained similar materials but the shelves contained vastly different items. In the control classroom, the shelves were filled with the standard educational books, toys, and puzzles which have been generally used with brain-damaged children. The experimental classroom contained those materials recommended by Montessori: pots and pans, a button frame, a lacing shoe, colored tablets, sound boxes, bells, a touch board, language cards, metal insets, rods, bead units, a movable alphabet, sandpaper letters, and jigsaw maps.

The Gesell tests and other measures were used to determine educational attainment and developmental changes in ambulation, manual skills, and speech. The sample was divided in terms of age and intelligence. At the conclusion of the study, the improvement was significantly greater in the Montessori classes than in the control classes. Children in the Montessori classes made significant improvement in educational attainment, manual skills, and speech (but not in ambulation); other children only made significant improvement in educational attainment and even that was not as marked as it was for the Montessori group.

The Cruickshank Teaching Method for Brain-Injured Children[32] emphasizes "filling the gaps" within each of the child's successive stages of development. If a child can not distinguish a square from a triangle, he will not be able to tell "H" from "A." If a picture of a swing and a picture of a table look the same to him, he can not see the difference between "W" and "M." If he can not stack plates, if he does not know what size tablet will best fit on his desk, he needs help in organizing spatial relationships for in reading he may confuse "said" and "sand," "the" and "then," "you" and "yes." Cruickshank's method attempts to overcome the brain-injured child's tendency to perseverate (continue an action past the appropriate time for completion), to be distractible and hyperactive, to display motor disinhibition, to perceive and respond in terms of segments rather than wholes, to confuse a figure with its background, and to lack an understanding of body image.

The Miller Symbol-Accentuation Method[33] attempts to diminish the discrepancy between the word and the object or activity it stands for. For example, when the word "HOT" is taught, it is printed in red with streamers of heat radiating from it. The word "PIG" has curled ends on all letters, the word "FALL" is collapsing in the middle, "CANDY" is peppermint striped, "WALK" has feet on the bottom of each letter, and "SAD" has a turned-down mouth and eyes on the letter "A." For extremely difficult words, the child proceeds from "body accentuation" (e.g., lifting a cup while saying the word "cup"), to "picture accentuation" (seeing a picture of a cup which is formed from the letters "c-u-p"), to "symbol accentuation" (which shows the letters more clearly while still maintaining a resemblance to a cup), to the symbol itself "CUP" without accentuation). The method was significantly more successful than traditional techniques (using non-accentuated symbols) in a research study involving mentally retarded and brain-injured non-readers.

The Stuart Neurophysiological Approach[34] is designed for children with neurologically-based language disabilities. The main focus of this method is on the integrated use of multiple-sensory devices and methods. Imagery, movement, and speech are combined with the activation of vision, hearing, and touch.

The McGlannan School[35] offers a full, ungraded curriculum for dyslexic children The school's diagnosticians find spatial problems among the many manifestations of dyslexia:[36]

> It is common, for instance, for the dyslexic child to have imperfect directional sense — to confuse left and right and up and down. As a result he is likely to reverse letters and words, or syllables within words: "b" becomes "d," "p" becomes "q"; "saw" may be written as "was," "left" as "felt," "on" as "no," and "sorrow" as "sowro"; and numbers may be similarly reversed with "42" substituted for "24". Up and down confusion leads him to write "M" for "W," and "d" for "p." All children, up to about age six, have difficulties of this kind, but the dyslexic child's reversals are far more numerous and persist much longer.

The school's basic approach is to determine the child's strengths and weaknesses, basing specific teaching methods on these findings. Visual and auditory approaches — those most directly affected by space and time problems — are supplemented by other methods, such as tactile-kinesthetic techniques. The pupil becomes increasingly familiar with the symbols that he finds so elusive; he feels them, traces them, arranges them in various sequences, and associates their shapes and sounds with similar objects. Starting with simple geometric forms and directionality training, the pupil works through to the letters of the alphabet and finally to complete words.

Subject matter is introduced in ways appropriate to the dyslexic pupils' condition. History, for example, is built upon "time lines" which are presented visually. When a dyslexic child looks at a map of the continents, it may appear to be an incomprehensible design. For geography, therefore, he traces the continents, colors them, cuts them out, and pastes them on a styrofoam globe. Only in this way is he able to see that Africa is larger than Australia and that England has a jagged coastline while Florida's is smooth. Concrete experiences help him to understand abstract concepts in other phases of the curriculum as well.

The pupil who lacks adequate time and space constructs may be helped by two workbooks designed by Hudson[37]. The **When?** workbooks utilizes pictures, bodily exercises, and pencil-paper activities to develop such concepts as "now," "then," "before," "after," "soon," "often," "seldom," "never," "yesterday," "today," "tomorrow," etc. The **Where?** workbook attempts the same thing for such concepts as "up," "down," "on," "in," "over," "under," "around," "behind," "out," "here," "there," etc.

An intersensory remedial program is currently being developed by Cecelia Pollack, Ph.D., at Maimonides Medical Center, Brooklyn, N.Y. The **Intersensory Reading Method** follows the principle that visual responses become more stabilized when related information is made available through the auditory and kinesthetic approaches integrated with a motor component.

The Purdue Achievement Center for Children[38] bases its remedial programs on the work of Kephart who has focused his investigations on the child who lacks readiness skills for reading. Kephart's suggestions for remediation involve the teaching of such pre-readiness skills as eye-hand coordination. Even eye-hand coordination, according to Kephart, must be preceded by the attainment of lateral dominance, directional knowledge, smooth eye movement, manual dexterity, and the ability to halt an action at will.

Ideally, these abilities should be mastered at home and Kephart (in association with Radler) has described procedures which parents can follow to foster their child's sensory-motor development.[39] These procedures include play activities ("Angels-in-the-Snow," rhythm tapping, etc.) as well as utilization of such devices as walking rails, balance boards, and trampolines.

> The early, simple games of the child are intended to develop his sense organs and his motor system. The child experiments with these things, looks at them, feels them from all angles, smells them, and taps them to produce sound. Such games can be called games of experience. By the manipulation of things and of his own body in relation to things, he is perfecting the sensory-motor process and is learning to match sensory data to motor data. 40

If a child reaches school without having mastered the basic pre-readiness skills, Kephart has designed a number of activities which teachers can inaugurate in the classroom. For example, the "Duck Walk" and the "Rabbit Hop" teach the child sensory-motor patterns which strengthen the body image. Drawing "lazy eights" and other simple figures on the blackboard assists the acquisition of directional knowledge, cross-movement, and the ability to reproduce a pattern. Peg-board lessons, matchstick forms, and ball-and-string games provide for the precise ocular control which Kephart purports is necessary for reading competence.

Kephart has noted that a child must be able to differentiate dimensions in space before he can identify directions along those dimensions. The child's awareness of verticality precedes his awareness of "up" and "down" which, in turn, precede the concepts of "above" and "below." In much the same way, the awareness of laterality precedes the awareness of "right" and "left." When he procedes from laterality to lateral directionality, he runs into the problem of the "midline"; as an object crosses in front of a young child, it will at first appear to be approaching him and then, at the midline, will suddenly appear to be going away from him. If the child can not master this directional translation at the midline, he will live in a bizarre and confused space world with his directional relationships shifting capriciously from side to side.

> The older child in the reading situation who has persistent problems with rotations and reversals, and who in some cases literally can not distinguish a "b" from a "d," is still struggling with the directionality problem. In working with such a child, it is well to establish just how thorough has been his solution of the more basic laterality problem. Directionality must rest upon a sound and stable motor awareness. . . . This explains the need for a heavy emphasis upon hand-eye tasks during the learning of directionality. 41

The Barsch Perceptual-Motor Curriculum[42] presents a specialized approach to achieving optimal learning efficiency for the preschool, elementary, secondary, and special class child with an emphasis upon techniques for the classroom teacher and the parent. Barsch's approach stresses the relationship between physical movement and the conceptual development.

The Programs to Accelerate School Success[43] are based upon the work of Getman who specifies six basic developmental processes: general movement (e.g., creeping), special movement (e.g., manipulative skills), eye movement, communication, visualization, and visual-perceptual organization (e.g., reading).

Getman [44] has stated that parents can assist their children in attaining proficiency in each process. Among the activities suggested are stomach rolls, balloon tossing, ocular pursuits, sound identification, identification of objects, and the counting of objects from left to right. These procedures were employed in a 15-week study of four first grade classes reported by McKee[45]; the experimental group's gains in reading comprehension were significantly greater than those of the control group.

Neurological Organization[46] is fostered by the treatment procedures advocated by the Institutes for the Achievement of Human Potential (IAHP). Feeling that learning disability is often a manifestation of abnormal function of the central nervous system, IAHP rehabilitationists direct their treatment to the brain itself, through either surgical or non-surgical techniques. The latter techniques fall into five categories: supplying discrete units of information to the brain for storage, programming the brain, eliciting immediate responses from the brain, permitting the brain to respond to previous programming, providing an improved physiological environment in which the brain may function. Examples of the techniques would include sensory stimulation (using tuning forks, flashlights, "sniff jars," etc.), superimposing movement patterns on the organism, providing sensory inputs that demand motor responses, encouraging certain types of crawling and creeping activities, and reducing liquid intake in an attempt to prevent over-accumulation of cerebrospinal fluid. Ten controlled studies have demonstrated the effectiveness of the IAHP approach[47]; in an additional study, the IAPH techniques did not produce significant differences but the tests for measurement purposes were not the same as those devised by the IAPH[48].

Conclusion

Dyslexia — reading disability resulting from central nervous system dysfunction — is not a simple entity since there is considerable variability in the degree and nature of the impairment. However, dyslexic children typically demonstrate a spatial confusion most obvious in the child's inability to consistently differentiate between reverse language symbols ("b" and "d," "was" and "saw")[49]. In addition, they ignore the details within words, basing word recognition on insufficient cues (the word's initial letter, the word's length, etc). Dyslexics also demonstrate difficulty in learning the associations between phonemes and graphemes — between letter sounds (particularly multisound vowels) and letter symbols. Other learning problems exist but vary, depending on the type of dyslexia from which the child is suffering.[50]

An interdisciplinary approach is needed for the diagnosis of dyslexics and several new tests show promise in helping teachers and tutors individualize educational procedures for dyslexics. Remediation may be inaugurated on a number of levels.

1. The pupil's dyslexic condition may be ignored and the child regarded as "stupid" or "lazy," thus incapable of benefiting from special assistance.
2. The child's condition may be misdiagnosed. Many dyslexic children are mistakenly identified as emotionally disturbed. In some instances, counseling and psychotherapy may be inaugurated. After a long period of treatment, the dyslexic child will still demonstrate reading difficulties (the special attention is not always in vain; the dyslexic child sometimes becomes a "well-adjusted non-reader").
3. The child's problem may be correctly diagnosed but remediation may consist of a repetition of classroom procedures — or letting the child "read on his own level" with no provision made for his special instructional needs.
4. The child may be recognized as dyslexic and educational adaptations made. Bryant's suggestions[51] which emphasize special instructional techniques but which omit neurological training, or others like them may be followed:

   > Each discrimination or association problem that causes repeated errors in material even below the child's reading level should be worked with by itself until the difficulty is overcome. The simplest and most basic discriminations should be established first. Each new word should be taught by some procedure involving writing the word or filling in missing letters so that attention is directed to details within the word. In addition, it is essential to provide discrimination training between each new word and words of similar shape. Confusion in left and right reversals of letters requires distributed kinesthetic practice and discrimination training with materials of gradually increasing difficulty . . . . The steps in increasing the complexity of the task should be so small that he is never allowed to make a mistake because a few errors can disrupt a great deal of previous learning and re-institute confusion.

5. Many remedial approaches attempt to ameliorate the child's educational, emotional, and cultural status; very few are concerned with the nervous system and the body musculature. The most controversial workers in this field emphasize motility, perceptual-motor coordination, and neurological training in an attempt to alter the child's physiology.

Most of the prominent writers in the field doubt that these training procedures can change the child's physiology. Wepman[52] has stated that the "argument that function or exercise will produce neurological psychological growth has had few adherents over the years." Spache[53] also has expressed his doubts that externally-directed treatments can induce internal structural changes in the brain.

Proponents of programs that are directed toward improvement in neurological organization point to the research of Klosovskii[54] who rotated cats on a turntable and, after examining their brains, noted that their neurological growth was significantly greater than those in a control group. Further, Bennett and his associates[55] found that rats given enriched experiences developed greater weight and thickness of cortical tissue as well as increased chemical activity of the brain, when compared with a control group. These investigators concluded that the anatomical and chemical dimensions of the brain are characterized by "plasticity." As a result, they are responsive to environmental manipulation.

The implications of these data are clear. If neurological organization can be altered, the child's perceptual-motor weakness should be strengthened (through training procedures) while remedial reading is geared toward his strengths. Therefore, a child with poor visual skills and excellent auditory skills might learn how to read through phonic and linguistic approaches while visual training and neurological organization activities are instituted which — in the future — will help him to master "sight" approaches to reading.

Another widely held assumption was placed in question by a research project reported by the National Committee for Research in Neurological Disorders[54] in 1962. Generations of medical students have been taught that nerves of the central nervous system will never regrow once they are severed. However, an experiment with cats demonstrated that severed nerves will regenerate for distances up to a quarter of an inch when assisted by a thin wall of filter material called millipore. The millipore sheath guides and supports the growth of the regenerating nerve cells so that they will meet and join. Furthermore, the tiny holes in millipore permit food materials from the blood to sustain the rebudding cells. At the present time it is not known whether these findings will apply to human subjects.

The wealth of research studies and remedial projects underway should encourage clinicians and educators who work with dyslexic children. It is hoped that professional jealousies will evaporate and that interdisciplinary efforts will be made toward identifying and rehabilitating pupils with central nervous system dysfunctions.

Summary

Dyslexic children suffer from brain dysfunctions brought about by physical injury or disease (post-traumatic dyslexia) or by genetic or maturational factors (developmental dyslexia). Whereas time distortions affect youngsters with aphasia (speech and listening problems brought about by central nervous system dysfunction) the inability to structure space afflicts children with dyslexia and dysgraphia. The prompt and accurate diagnosis of these children should be viewed as the first step in remediation and should be interdisciplinary in nature. The most controversial issue in remediation is whether or not a child's neurological organization can be changed so as to bring about a greater facility in mastering language skills.

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PRE-SERVICE EDUCATION IN READING

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Education for the complicated task of teaching reading is receiving serious attention at all levels — local, state, and national. No present-day education problem seems to receive a greater share of attention, and it is doubtful if any is more deserving. In professional circles there is overwhelming agreement that a concerted effort is needed if we are to overcome functional illiteracy. Any major disagreement is concerned with the point at which the greatest effort is being made. The purpose of this paper is to present a point of view concerning the role pre-service education could and should play in developing professional competence in teaching reading.

The Need

Professionals in the field of reading do not need to be oriented to the position the undergraduate college should assume in the preparation of teachers. However, with the great drive to prepare an adequate number of remedial reading teachers, reading supervisors, and clinical experts it is easy to shift attention from the basic preparation of pre-service teachers to the more challenging task of educating the experts. Important as it is to develop an army of reading authorities, there are at least three reasons why the supreme effort should be employed at the undergraduate level.

1. A majority of elementary school children are taught by teachers who hold the baccalaureate degree or less. Of the 964,639[1] elementary teachers working in the nation's schools, 829,500 hold a baccalaureate degree or less. Based upon the present teacher-pupil ratio at the elementary level, about 23,228,500 elementary children are being taught by teachers who do not have the advantages of an advanced degree. Obviously, if the undergraduate education program does not provide a suitable background for teaching reading, a large majority of elementary pupils will be subjected to teaching procedures that could well be substandard.

2. Reading instruction at the elementary and secondary levels is inadequate. The Harvard Study[2] drew attention to the deplorable state of reading instruction in many elementary school systems throughout the nation. Subsequent reports and studies of lesser magnitude have shown the validity of the earlier conclusions. The

high incidence of reading failure also sustains the accusation that children are not receiving the quality of instruction they should. Estimates indicate that 15 to 20 per cent of school children become remedial. If we add to this number the 30 to 40 per cent who are achieving on grade level but below potential, we have 35 to 60 per cent of our pupils failing to make adequate progress.

Not only have studies shown that reading programs were inadequate, they have revealed that teachers actively engaged in reading instruction are poorly prepared. Spache and Baggett,[3] Aaron,[4] Purcell,[5] Ramsey,[6] and Schubert[7] have all reported studies which indicate that teachers do not comprehend some of the basic reading skills and understandings that should be taught at the elementary level. Such findings lead to the conclusion that reading will remain an educational problem so long as instructors are expected to teach something they do not know. If the problem of substandard reading instruction for the majority of elementary pupils is resolved, it will be through better planned pre-service programs in which teachers are required to learn the skills they will be expected to teach.

3. The demand for teachers with preparation in reading is increasing. School superintendents and personnel directors have indicated their partiality toward teachers having undergraduate reading courses by their willingness to give them immediate contracts for the most sought after positions. The demands of modern curriculums for ability to read a variety of materials for different purposes necessitates a type of flexibility in the reading instructional program that can be provided only by teachers with background preparation in reading and the other language arts. A basic reading textbook approach is no longer adequate. The teacher's manual, once followed systematically with little deviation, must now be supplemented extensively by outside materials, and teaching procedures must be tailored to fit the problems inherent in a particular situation. Pre-service preparation is not only desirable, it is a necessity for a beginning teacher who is expected to meet the demands of a reading program geared to the needs of present-day classrooms.

The Status of Pre-Service Reading Instruction

Provisions for pre-service education in reading differ so much from state to state and from institution to institution that it is difficult to give a status report that presents a true picture. Surveys of the certification requirements and number of reading courses available for undergraduates are indicative, however, of the quality of preparation beginning teachers may be expected to have. State certification requirements as reported by Woellner and Wood[8] indicate that only twelve states specify reading as a requirement at the elementary level, and two specifically require it for secondary teachers. Although some states may encourage students to complete one or more courses in reading, published requirements do not suggest that reading is a requisite for certification.

Strang[9] analyzed course offerings in reading from seventy-seven selected colleges and universities to find the courses and programs available for teachers of high school and college-age students. She was also concerned with the content of the courses and the length of time they had been given. She found that the offerings ranged all the way from a single course to more elaborate programs intended to lead to a speciality in reading at the graduate level. Many of the programs were of recent origin. One could conclude from her study that even among selected colleges and universities, there are no common criteria or standards or excellence used to determine the amount and kind of instruction that should be provided for pre-service education in teaching reading.

Staff members of the Reading Center, West Virginia University, examined catalogs from two hundred colleges and universities, selected at random, to find (1) the number of reading courses available for undergraduate students, and (2) how many institutions provided for a major or minor teaching field in reading.

They found that one hundred eighty-two of the two hundred catalogs examined listed credit courses in undergraduate reading methods. Of those that provided courses, sixty (30 per cent) listed only one course; fifty (25 per cent) listed two courses; twenty-four (12 per cent) listed three courses; and forty-eight (24 per cent) indicated sufficient courses to provide twelve to eighteen hours of credit in reading. Four catalogs from this latter group indicated that students were permitted to elect reading as a teaching specialty. Eighteen (9 per cent) of the total number of catalogs examined did not list reading courses.

These data indicate that nearly 40 per cent of the colleges and universities do not offer enough courses in reading to prepare a student to teach reading adequately. An additional 25 per cent would be in the questionable category. If the catalogs examined are truly representative of the teacher education colleges and universities in the nation, there is great need for improvement.

Encouraging Trends

The outlook is not completely without hope. There are many encouraging signs that undergraduate programs in reading will be strengthened. Reassuring trends gleaned from professional meetings, individual discussions, and from increased demands for college teachers of reading indicate that improvements are being made. Those which seem to be most promising are listed below.

1. There is an increase in the number of colleges that are either adding reading to the curriculum or giving it some attention in the English or language arts program.

2. Reading, as a teaching field, is receiving favorable attention by certification departments in some states that formerly did not recognize it as a specialized area.

3. Superintendents and personnel directors in increasingly large numbers are requesting beginning teachers who have completed course work and laboratory experience in reading.

4. Students in undergraduate colleges are showing a greater interest in selecting reading courses as electives even though they are not recognized as essential for graduation and certification.

5. Studies are being conducted to determine the needs of inservice teachers as a basis for improving the content of pre-service methods courses. Adams'[10] study of the needs of Florida teachers is an excellent example of the kind of study that yields useful information.

6. Colleges are experimenting with new techniques for making methods instruction more practical. Simulated teaching situations such as those reported by Utsey, Wallen, and Beldin[11] have special appeal and significance for college instructors who desire to provide true-to-life laboratory experiences for college students in pre-service programs.

Some Suggestions

If college pre-service programs for reading teachers are ineffective, it is not because there has been a lack of consideration given to needs in this area nor because there is a paucity of suggestions for improvement. The Harvard Studies by Austin and others[12] made an extensive survey of college offerings and practices and also pointed out many facets of the college program which needed study and possible revision in the light of observed needs in the classroom. Austin and Gutmann[13] summarized significant recommendations for reducing classroom teachers' problems by reviewing notable practices found in one or more colleges. McGinnis[14] studied the needs of secondary teachers of reading and directed attention to the possibility of utilizing subject matter areas in college pre-service programs to provide help in critical thinking and reading in the content fields. Summers[15] offered suggestions for giving depth and breadth to survey reading courses. Doubtless there are many significant studies now in progress that will reveal additional areas that need attention.

Research, observation, and professional discussions have indicated several areas of pre-service education that should be strengthened. Many recommendations for improving college programs have been offered. Some of them have been utilized; a considerable number have not. The following is a summary of the major proposals that have been suggested as practical approaches to strengthening pre-service programs at all levels.

1. Require a minimum of two courses in reading for elementary certification — a course in basic and one in corrective reading.
2. Require a course in secondary reading for certification at the high school level.
3. Provide specialized courses in seminars in reading for undergraduate students who desire to elect them.
4. Require a course in the organization and administration of reading programs for all administrative certificates.
5. Put special stress on providing supervised student teaching experiences in a laboratory situation or under the direction of qualified supervising teachers.
6. Plan for greater integration of reading instruction with instruction in other phases of the language arts.
7. Make periodic studies of the needs of elementary and secondary teachers as a basis for continuous revision of the college program.
8. Conduct followup studies or experiment with measuring instruments to find the effectiveness of the college program in preparing beginning teachers to face the problems of inservice teaching.

It is a well-known fact that background is essential to learning and to satisfactory performance in any subject field. It follows that if the pre-service program in reading does not provide background in understanding basic reading skills, methods, and teaching techniques, teachers cannot be expected to organize and conduct an adequate reading program. Probably of greater importance, teachers will not be able to gain maximum benefit from teaching experience if they begin professional service with meager preparation. Adequate pre-service education in reading is essential for initial teaching success and for continued improvement through service.

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STANDARDS AND ETHICS FOR THE READING PRACTITIONER

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This paper attempts to offer positive suggestions for the continued development, refinement, and implementation of standards and ethics as they relate to the reading practitioner. To achieve this goal, the writer briefly reviews the history of ethics and standards as they apply to the profession at large and the reading teacher in particular, and examines a few situations which demonstrate the problems unique to the reading practitioner. He then offers seven suggestions as to how we may protect competent practitioners in reading who are unjustly attacked, and protect the public from incompetent reading instruction by individuals or groups, in or out of the school setting.

The writer accepts the premise that in order for a profession to claim autonomy, that profession must present evidence of its willingness to assume responsibility for those who enter it and practice it. Therefore, the role of the state regarding certification and licensure is not within the scope of this paper. Surely the time has come for reading practitioners to demonstrate to the state and others that it can responsibly lead rather than blindly follow what has been passed into law regarding certification in reading.

What Has Been Done

A brief review of the history of standards and ethics related to teachers in general and to reading teachers in particular shows the following progress:

1. The NEA has adopted a Code of Ethics of the Education Profession, a code which is widely distributed by the NEA Committee on Professional Ethics. By virtue of its adoption by related organizations, such as Phi Delta Kappa—the professional fraternity for men in education — the Code theoretically applies to about 1½ million members of the profession.[1] Adopting and subscribing to a code of ethics does not, in itself, imply that the code can be enforced or that there are corresponding standards of competency acceptable to all teachers.

2. The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, popularly referred to as TEPS, has been and is wrestling with the elusive tasks of identifying and agreeing on standards of competence. Marvin pinpoints the task: "The definition and application of competency standards is one of the really great problems confronting education."[2] TEPS, the National Council on Accreditation in Teacher Education (NCATE), and the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) are probably the most influential groups working on the problem of developing standards for the teaching profession in general.

3. Although this problem has not been solved for teachers as a group, there have been sub-groups within the profession who have forged ahead and developed not only a code of ethics for a particular educational practice but also minimum standards of preparation. Noteworthy among these groups in education are the American Psychological Association, the American Personnel and Guidance Association, and the International Reading Association all of whom developed, in a relatively short period, both a code of ethics and standards of competency.

4. The story of the evolution of the IRA's code of ethics and the compromises surrounding the acceptance of minimal professional standards for the reading practitioner is recorded elsewhere by Charles T. Letson,[3] the Chairman of the Professional Standards Committee of the IRA in 1961, and Robert Karlin,[4] a committee member. Copies of the IRA Code of Eethics and the Minimum Standards for Professional Training of Reading Specialists are available from the IRA, Box 695, Newark, Delaware, 19711. The limitations of the standards have been noted by Karlin: "The standards are intended for elementary and secondary level personnel although there is much in them that apply to the college and adult levels."[5] The obvious question arises—do reading practitioners who work at the college level need standards unique to their function, or can they accept what has already been done?

5. Apparently the College Reading Association (CRA) felt that a need existed for further refinement. In 1963, the CRA established an Ethics and Standard Commission, with the writer as Chairman, to fulfill those parts of the by-laws which state: "the purposes of the Association shall be (1) to promote professional standards of competency; (2) to establish a professional code of ethics, and promote adherence thereto, . . ." (By-laws, College Reading Association). Writing the above section into the by-laws and the creation of the Ethics and Standards Commission were relatively easy tasks;

subsequent action has been most frustrating and almost fruitless.

6. The problems faced and being faced by various groups such as TEPS, IRA, and others also belong to the CRA. As Martha Maxwell[6] carefully delineated in a speech to the North Central Reading Association membership in 1965, the implementation of a code of ethics and its application to a specific instance leave tons of words to be said and hundreds of bridges to be built. Perhaps time cures all wounds. Perhaps Dr. Maxwell's confrontations with a commercial reading organization, a legal firm, local school administrators, a local reading association, and a state education agency have left the indelible mark. But the fact was loud and very clear: a code of ethics not adhered to, a statement of minimum standards of competence, a resolution or two by the IRA or CRA did not protect the public from incompetent practitioners or a competent practitioner from unjust attack!

Typical Problems

To demonstrate the need for further development, refinement, and implementation of both ethics and standards for the reading practitioner, consider a few typical situations:

1. A commercial out-of-state reading organization advertises in the local newspaper that a course in reading and study skills for the college-bound will be offered. The program is of one week's duration, a total of 15 to 20 hours of class instruction, with a $75.00 fee attached, and taught by a person with a university affiliation. Your campus telephone begins ringing and the parents ask some questions: Do you think the course is worthwhile? Will my Johnny or Mary be able to qualify for college by taking the program? Even though our high school counselor said that Bill's reading skills will preclude his going to college, don't you think this one week course will change all "that"? And on and on.

You have never heard of the organization. You have no knowledge of screening devices employed in accepting students, of the qualifications of the instructor who may or may not be competent, of the limitations, of guaranteed results. Using the IRA Code of Ethics as a base, you read under "Ethical Standards in Reading Services", section 5: "Reading Clinics and/or reading specialists offering professional services should refrain from guaranteeing easy solutions or favorable outcomes as a result of their work, and their advertising should be consistent with that of allied professions. They should not accept for remediation any persons who are unlikely to benefit from their instruction, . . ."[7]

On the basis of the meager information offered in the newspaper advertisement, you have no idea whether the offered program is in keeping with the Code or a direct violation of it. You are forced to hedge on the telephone to the parents' queries simply because you do not know the answers to their questions. The program may or may not be valid; the instructor may or may not be competent.

Don't we know enough—at least a minimum—about the teaching of reading, reading programs, expectations and limitations to say, through either a standards board or other body, that a practitioner or program is competent and, hence, receives the approval of the reading profession?

2. Another example of our awkward position is the history of the treatment of the Evelyn Wood Reading Dynamics Institute. In the late 50's, those of us involved with college or adult programs were aghast at the extravagant claims made by the Wood organization in metropolitan newspaper advertisements and through live demonstrations regarding speeds of 5,000 to 10,000 words per minute for students completing the Wood program. The IRA Code of Ethics is quite specific on programs that guarantee results and states under "Ethical Standards in Professional Relationships," section 3: It is the obligation of members to report results of research and other developments in reading."[8] No evidence or research of any kind came from Mrs. Wood. Instead, charges and counter-charges flew in all directions; the mystery increased—did the petite, personable Mrs. Wood discover a way to break the speed barrier? Repeated requests for research on THE METHOD went unheeded. Mrs. Wood's organization entertained all kinds of groups, including teachers, in major cities and live demonstrations bordering on the mystical. And still no research came. And no censure from any reading group, either.

Finally, in desperation, others began studying the products of the Reading Dynamics Institute. Ehrlich at Columbia, Stauffer at the University of Delaware, Liddle, Spache, and Taylor all came forward with reports on students who had completed the Wood reading program. The evidence [9, 10, 11] was most disturbing: the improvement of those taught the Wood reading method was slight, and not nearly as great as had been claimed in magazines and newspapers; in fact, Spache claimed that comprehension did not improve at all.[9] Is this why the advertisements have been substantially toned down in recent years? Would the Wood (an unintended pun) program have ever gone as far as it has if the reading profession had some means to enforce standards? A profession that cannot police its own is a questionable profession, indeed.

3. A final problem demonstrates again the need to further develop, refine, and implement the Code of Ethics and some form of minimum standards. This problem may or may not be a welcome one. The writer refers to the vast employment of sub-professionals and para-professionals in the Great Society programs such as Upward-Bound, Head-Start, Vista and related groups. The problem of competence in these people concerns the entire teaching profession and certainly has not gone unnoticed. But we do not have a stake in the fact that these people are teaching reading skills? What can we do to help them? To improve their competency? How does the fact of their direct involvement with the teaching of reading relate to the IRA Code of Ethics? Do we take a stand of any kind? Or worse, do we wish the problem away . . .

Recommendations

To continue the progress of the IRA, to support the need for continued refinement and implementation of what the IRA has done, and to bring the total resources of the College Reading Association into the effort, the writer offers the following recommendations:

1. That the CRA adopt and endorse the IRA Code of Ethics.

2. That the CRA Board of Directors request the IRA Board of Directors to extend membership to a CRA representative on the IRA Professional Standards and Ethics Standing Committee; the CRA member is specifically charged with the responsibility of examining standards and ethics as they relate to the reading practitioner at the college and adult levels, and to report such findings to the CRA Standards and Ethics Committee.

3. That those involved in teaching reading, regardless of their affiliation with any particular reading organization, seriously consider the possibilities and ramifications of establishing a board of examiners or related group that may overcome the hurdles of legal action, the dangers of false charges, and related sensitive areas.

Specifically, that the CRA Board of Directors appoint a standing committee entitled "The CRA Board of Licensure" to implement recommendations regarding the certification of Anagnologists, a new endorsement for students of the art of reading.

4. That those who teach undergraduate and/or graduate courses in reading to prospective teachers make known and discuss the implications of a code of ethics and standards for the professional practice of reading.

5. That a campaign be launched to inform the general public of our code of ethics and standards.

6. That continued but increased contacts be made with state education officials regarding certification matters as they relate to readings specialists.

7. That teacher-education officials carefully examine their programs in relation to the minimum standards already adopted by the IRA.

A final observation. If it is true that one hallmark of a profession is the willingness of its members to discipline themselves and to accept responsibility for what they profess, then our future action is quite clear—professional maturity in reading rests on our ability to solve the problems identified in this paper.

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READING RATE: CLAIMS AND CONTROVERSIES

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Confusion hovers over the facet of reading referred to as "rate" by some and "speed reading" by others. Claims spark controversies that give rise to other controversial issues which leave a trail of questions, unasked as well as unanswered. The intent of this paper is to draw together some of these claims and controversial issues along with the more pertinent questions.

Claims

Among the most widely known claims related to increasing reading rate are those made by Evelyn Wood Reading Dynamics, Inc. With institutes in approximately 100 cities, their advertisements claim, among other things, to "at least triple the reading rate of those taking the course . . . ."[1] The course consists of eight 2½-hour sessions, one session each week, and the "average student reads 4.7 times faster than his starting speed with equal or better comprehension." Their ads further state that "conventional rapid reading courses aspire to 450-600 words per minute. Most Reading Dynamics graduates can read between 1,500 and 3,000 words per minute, and many go even higher."

People who wish to read faster than 3,000 words a minute can enroll in the Optimation Rapid Reading Course. "Most Optimation students, from children to senior citizens, learn to read at the rate of 5,000 words per minute," their ads claim.[2] Many are able to read 10,000 words per minute—or more. One 20-year-old university student from Chicago learned to read at the incredible pace of 40,000 words per minute with increased comprehension."

Yet even these rates are slow in comparison with those attained through a program described in an educational journal.[3, 4] Through this program, a five-year-old girl was taught to read 6,000 words a minute; a junior high school girl, 50,000 words a minute; and an 11-year-old boy reached 123,000 words a minute.

More conservative yet hardly less controversial claims are made by firms that deal more closely with the school. The publisher[5] of the Controlled Reader, one of the more popular group pacing methods, claims that rate, comprehension, and flexibility (referred to by the publisher as variability) will be increased; however, no astronomical figures are presented. Similarly, the publisher[6] of a popular tachistoscopic method, the Tachist-O-Film Program, claims that rate and comprehension will be increased.

Consideration must be given to individual methods as well as group methods. The Rapid Reading Kit, an individual tachistoscopic method, will "double your reading speed—and possibly triple it, or better" as well as "improve your powers of concentration, comprehension and retention."[7] The Rateometer, a widely-used individual pacing method, will increase rate, comprehension, and flexibility,[8] according to the accompanying brochure.

Controversial Issues

A major controversial issue involves the claims made by the proponents of the different methods and programs. For at least seven years now reading specialists have been arguing sporadically, but steadily. In the November 1960 issue of **The Reading Teacher**, Stauffer[9] referred to the Wood Reading Dynamics Method as "a magnificent ambition." About a year later, Spache,[10] citing Stauffer's phrase, questioned the veracity of the claims of the Reading Dynamics Program. Spache, in turn, was criticized by Stevens and Orem,[11] who, in their article, pointed to the preliminary results of the research on the Reading Dynamics Method then being conducted under the aegis of Stauffer.[12] Three years later, this fledgling research emerged as a doctoral dissertation in which Liddle found that students taught the Wood method increased their reading rate but "an analysis of the data . . . does not substantiate the claim that exceptional rates are obtained without a loss in comprehension."[13] Similar findings were obtained by Taylor.[14]. Additional views on aspects of the Wood Method are presented by Wheeler and Wheeler[15] and Schale.[16]

The author[17] investigated four methods of increasing reading rate, comprehension, and flexibility. These four methods were referred to as tachistoscopic, controlled reader, controlled pacing, and paperback scanning. He found that while each method increased reading rate the comprehension level remained the same. He also found that three of the four methods increased reading flexibility.

Machines versus Non-Machines

Related to the controversial issue of claims is the issue involving the value of machines in increasing rate. In regard to the tachistoscope, Gilbert[18] found a "substantial correlation between the length of the fixation pauses students use in reading simple prose material and the speed with which the students can process tachistoscopically-presented stimuli resulting from single phrases." Buswell,[19] however, found only a .06 correlation between reading rate and a perceptual test involving the tachistoscope. Sutherland[20] found that "the group that had previous training in perceptual span made faster initial progress in improvement in rate rather than a comparable group that had not had training in perceptual span." However, Weber[21] found no significant difference in speed or comprehension between one group using the tachistoscope and another using textbooks.

Like the relatively few studies that have attempted to control the effects of the tachistoscope, the studies that have attempted to determine the effects of controlled pacing devices have yielded conflicting results. In separate studies, Taylor[22] and Weeden[23] have reported rate increases with controlled pacing devices. However, the population samples using these devices in the studies of Thompson,[24] Barry and Smith[25] did more poorly than groups using other methods. No significant difference in results from different methods was the conclusion reached in the investigations of Cason[26] and Glock.[27]

Following an investigation of the relevant literature, Tinker[28] suggests that training with the tachistoscope is of questionable value in increasing reading rate, although he observes that such training may produce other desirable effects, such as improved visual discrimination, greater attention, and heightened motivation. He also questions the value of controlled pacing devices, noting that they are "no more effective in increasing rate of reading than are less complicated but sound classroom procedures." He points out that these machines are often expensive, "their use becomes a ritual and tends to overemphasize the mechanical aspects of reading to the sacrifice of proper attention to the more important processes of comprehension and thinking," and there is usually little transfer to natural reading situations.

Level of Research

Another controversial issue, adding to the confusion, is the state of the research on reading rate. Most of what is called research is merely a description rather than an experiment. Even in experimental research involving machines, most studies report the use of a combined methods approach; consequently, the problem of ascertaining how much each method contributed to the results is, of course, a weakness in these studies. The author's[19] selected review of studies on the effectiveness of various methods of increasing reading efficiency, which covers a forty-year period, reveals weaknesses sufficient to make one cautious in interpreting the results of many of these studies. The major weaknesses include lack of a pilot study and lack of adequate control groups. Other weaknesses include those cited by Davis[20] and Bliesmer.[21]

It would seem that one way to upgrade research activity is by allowing only quality work to appear in educational journals.

Measurement

Related to the issue of research is that of measurement. "The measurement of rate of work in reading for various purposes poses many difficult problems," Davis[22] points out. "Number of words read per minute is, in itself, a meaningless score. To be meaningful, it must be associated with a score indicating the extent of comprehension that has been attained." Braam[23] has suggested the possibility of multiplying rate and comprehension to obtain an effective rate.

The author recently reexamined approximately twenty-five tests which claim to test rate, comprehension or flexibility. He sought a test composed of short passages and a test composed of a long passage to allow the reader to perform on these different kinds of measures. He found that most of the tests had little or no validity or reliability data. Tests found to be most reliable included the **Van Wagenen Rate of Comprehension Test**, the **Robinson-Hall Reading Test of History** (Forms Canada and Russia), the **Braam-Sheldon Flexibility of Reading Test**, and the **Nelson-Denny Reading Test.**

An additional problem is the interpretation of test results. For example, on a test used by the author during his doctoral investigation there was a significant increase for one group at the .01 level of confidence. However, the actual mean gain was only 25 words a minute. Hence the question:[24] Is it ethical to take six weeks of student and instructor time to achieve an increase of only 25 words a minute — even though this increase is statistically significant?

The issue of measurement of reading rate is far from resolved, and various other ways have been proposed. Rankin[25] recommends the residual gain method of measuring rate; others recommend counting syllables rather than words per minute.

Reading Rate

Casting a shadow over all these issues is the still unresolved problem of providing a definition of rate, or speed of reading that is acceptable to all concerned. Tinker[36] claims that the "only justifiable or valid definition of 'speed of reading' is 'speed of comprehension,' " and his test is based on his definition. In his discussion, Spache[37] defines reading as "the act of reading most of the words on the page." Taylor [38] suggests the use of WDPM — words dealt with per minute. Pauk [39] has observed that "the people who deal in selling these thousands-of-words-per-minute rate would do the field of reading a favor if they would coin another word, because what they are doing is **not** reading in the traditional sense."

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LET'S UNDERSTAND THE PHONICS ISSUE

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The purpose of this presentation is to show that a better understanding of the phonics issue will result from applying three ideas that are related to the English writing system and to the thinking process: 1. English is an analytic language; 2. analytic languages yield best to the analytic process; and 3. effective use of the analytic process requires acceptance of the analytic style.

Analytic Language

The first need in applying the idea of English as an analytic language is to understand that alphabetic writing is not phonetic writing where each letter represents one phone in the pronunciation of a word. Alphabetic writing is phonemically based.

> The English alphabet is phonemically based but it is not, as used for English, a "phonemic alphabet" in the sense that there is only one letter symbol for each phoneme and only one phoneme for each letter symbol. **We cannot expect, therefore, to be able to match each letter of the English alphabet, as it occurs in the graphic representation of English word-patterns,** with an English phoneme. Although phonemically based, the individual letters of the alphabet with which we write do not stand in a one for one correspondence with the separate phonemes of our language.[1]

Even though the science of linguistics reveals peculiarities of the English writing system which should discourage the promotion of phonics programs that attempt to match letters and sounds, these ideas persist. The implication in such an approach is that the children do not use word structure, context, and other clues in various combinations with phonemes for the purpose of achieving word recognition. The result is that when grapheme-phoneme representation does not yield standard pronunciation, i.e., ocean, canal, chief, additional teaching rules are introduced. Extending the set of phonic symbols is not justified; neither is adding rules.

> Phonetic alphabets were designed with the hope that it would be possible to represent the individual sounds so precisely that the full details of the pronunciation of any language could be revealed by writing alone. In the struggle to achieve this goal a succession of additional signs have been added to the International Phonetic Alphabet. But even the most extended set of phonetic symbols devised for practical use falls far short of the number of sound differences that can be perceived in a single language. Practical alphabets for the general reading of languages cannot hope to be phonetic.[2]

Currently popular synthetic phonics systems, such as ITA, Words In Color, and Unifon are not supported by the basic principles known to linguistic science. All of these techniques succeed to some degree; but the success experienced could be due to a number of other factors, such as increased amounts of writing and reading, context clues and general language clues, disappearance of dull, perfunctory ritual associated with the repeated use of other materials, and the general effect of being involved in experimentation.

A second need in applying the idea of English as an analytic language is to realize that our alphabetic-phonemic writing system, although not ideal, is adequate.

> English is very distinctly less well spelled than most of the languages using the Greco-Roman alphabet. But the view that English spelling is completely erratic or that it is so erratic that we must forego all the advantage of an alphabetic system is entirely without foundation.[3]

Rather than emphasize the inconsistencies of the spelling system, attention should be given to the remarkably consistent patterns in spelling. A Bell Telephone Company study revealed that the lists of 50 words most often spoken in business-office English average regularity 64% of the time.[4] The English spelling system is complex, because many of our ultra-high frequency words are not spelled according to a regular system but as Trager suggests, ". . . the much vaunted irregularities are a favorite bit of folklore."[5] And according to Fries,[6] the whole problem is misunderstood, misrepresented, and exaggerated.

A third need in applying the idea of English as an analytic language is to be aware that word identification is really a matter of achieving word recognition. Pronunciation is not the primary issue. The process of decoding written language proceeds from grapheme, to phoneme, to language, to meaning, and then to individual pronunciation. Standard pronunciation exists only in a standard dictionary; it does not exist in language as it is spoken.[7]

Pronunciation versus recognition is a major source of confusion when trying to understand the phonics issue. Clymer[8] has evaluated the usefulness of phonic generalizations, using as a main criterion the question, "Is the generalization stated specifically enough so that it can be said to aid or hinder in the pronunciation of a particular word?" Twenty-six hundred words from primary-level readers were used, the check on phonetic respelling and syllabic division being made in Webster's Collegiate Dictionary. Utility value of the generalization was considered acceptable, if the generalization aided the pupil 75% of the time in getting standard pronunciation.

The conclusion was then made that the generalization "When there are two vowels side by side, the long sound of the first one is heard and the second is usually silent," was rejected because it rated a 45% utility value. The examples used were "bead" as an instance of aid, and "chief" as an instance of hindrance. The basic error in Clymer's thesis is his failure to realize that "chief" would be well within recognition range! The pronunciation of chief and almost all other words varies widely according to regional dialects.

Analytic Process

Understanding of the phonics issue is achieved also by knowing that all language decoding is achieved through the analytic process. In order to clarify this statement, two ideas will be emphasized: 1) Both general language usage clues and graphic clues are combined in the reading process, and 2) there must be an awareness of the role of cognition in the reading process.

We cannot expect the individual letters of the alphabet to stand in a one for one correspondence with the separate phonemes of our language. For example, general language clues and the graphic clues are important in decoding **sew**, because of **blew**, **few**, etc. When the phonemic clues are used with meaning of the sentence, there is usually a swift and easy resolution of the problem: Jane picked up the needle and thread and began to sew. As suggested by Fries:

> One can read, insofar as he can respond to the language symbols represented by patterns of graphic shapes as fully as he has already learned to respond to the same language signals of his code represented by patterns of auditory shapes.[9]

Teacher effectiveness is dependent upon the cognitive processes of the student and her understanding of these processes.[10] Linguistics, the study of language, is a cognitive science.

> All in all, there is a feedback, a circulation of information, performed by a machine that combines a statistically defined pattern of activity with relations of probabilities—exactly what we believe of language. Perhaps the human brain is more like such a network for computing and controlling probabilities of transition in the language structure than it is like a warehouse or storage drum. Its network of activity will have been built up by experience with the outside world and with other human beings in their speaking and other activities, until it learns to identify, recognize, reproduce, and recombine the linguistics in an effective way.[11]

The analytic process succeeds not so much because of any discreet part: rather the effective use of it depends upon the efficiency of the processing.

> If communication takes place, acoustically or optically, then this is due to the faculty of abstraction of the auditory and visual centers in the brain, that is, to the ability of the brain to recognize the class in a specimen of the class, regardless of the individual pattern of the individual features of the specimen.[12]

As restated in the same source, and showing the relation of processing to the phonics issue, Pulgrum suggests:

> The basic phenomenon is phonemics and graphemics, as well as in semantics and in non-linguistic human activities, seems to be the faculty of the brain to classify numerous single items as members of a much smaller number of species. Ultimately this labor of sorting and classifying is a device of economy, designed to crystallize the relevant features and abstract them from a mass of non-distinctive individual details . . . Epistemologically and linguistically, this may well be the most humanly intelligent performance of the human intellect.[13]

When a person is required to correctly identify **break** for the first time, the analytic process would be applied because of the possible generalization of **ea** from the known words **heat**, **meat**, and **beat**. Rather than be concerned about the lack of phonemic correspondence with the grapheme **ea**, the emphasis should be on high efficiency processing of all of the language signals and all of the relevant graphic signals: I saw the boy break the window. Assuming that the antecedent words are recognized, there would be failure **only** if improper use is made of the information at hand.[14] Word recognition, using the analytic process, is directly related to the basic principles of cybernetics and data processing.

> If a decision maker attempted to collect **all** of the facts relating to a situation, **he would probably never act.** Some attributes of the situation must be ignored or considered as constants . . . with no effect on the decision making process. The principle of bounded rationality assumes that, since this is true, the decision maker will not attempt to select the **optimum** course of action. Instead, through suboptimization a selection will be made from those courses of action whose results would be good enough.[15]

Analytic Style

Effective use of the analytic process requires acceptance of analytic style. Whether or not a word is recognized depends upon the efficiency of the decision making, or processing of the available-relevant data. After reviewing sixty years of research on the thinking process, Hyman and Anderson report ". . . the stumbling block that appears again and again in both laboratory and real life is failure to make use of the information at hand."[16] This research resulted in six suggestions, four of which apply to accepting the analytic style as a means of getting a better understanding of the phonics issue:

1. Train children to run over the elements of the problem rapidly several times until a pattern emerges which encompasses them all.

2. Train children to suspend judgment; they will not get trapped into clinging to the first interpretation.

3. Train children to rearrange elements of the problem. In this way they may uncover a familiar pattern previously masked by an unfamiliar arrangement.

4. Train children to try a new approach if initial attempts are unsatisfactory. Good reasoners jump from one direction to another

until they find the solution.

There is a good possibility that the phonics issue is not related to the English writing system. Perhaps the real problem is related to a misunderstanding of the behavior that is characteristically associated with the beginning stages of language mastery.

> In learning to talk, a child has had to learn to respond to the patterns of phonemes which identify the word-patterns. These language responses have included both a high-speed recognition of the physical patterns of phonemes that mark off and identify the word-patterns he uses, and an equally high-speed recognition of the positions of his experiences that his "community" attaches to these word-patterns as meanings. Now, in learning to read he must develop similar habits of high-speed recognition responses to the identification features of the spelling-patterns that represent the word-patterns he knows.[17]

Learning to talk is a much more difficult task than learning to read,[18] and children learn to talk long before they enter school. Both the need for satisfaction related to talking and the extensive practice opportunities are primary factors in this truly remarkable achievement. But there is one more condition that is at least equally important: Rarely is a child required to satisfy rigid style requirements. Parents usually display an almost intuitive acceptance of the natural analytic style that is so characteristic of the application of the higher mental process in learning to tallk. High-speed talking can happen only if low-speed talking comes first. There must be, in the early stages of learning to talk, a type of experimental hesitancy, sound distortion, repetition, and stumbling. The acceptance of this analytic style causes the child to strive. When the striving is accompanied by appropriate neurological development and life experiences, the miracle of talking is achieved.

The exact conditions related to mastering reading of the English writing system are those related to learning to talk. The issue is not so much a matter of degree of grapheme-phoneme correspondence as it is a matter of acceptance of the analytic style that characterizes application of the higher mental processes and use of the analytic process.

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RESEARCH LOOKS AT THE TENTH GRADE READER IN A COMPREHENSIVE HIGH SCHOOL

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This study grew out of the research for my doctorate reported at the annual meeting of this group last year.[1] In that research study, I was investigating some of the factors in home background and reader self concept which relate significantly to the reading achievement of tenth grade students. In the course of that research, a questionnaire was administered to the entire tenth grade class of the Easton Area High School in Easton, Pennsylvania, consisting of 303 boys and 279 girls. The reading achievement score of each student, obtained from the Stanford Reading Achievement Test at the end of ninth grade, as well as the I.Q. score of each student from the Otis quick scoring test also taken at the end of the ninth grade, were recorded for each student.

In this report, I should like to share with you some of the more interesting features of the tenth grade readers which were revealed by a further analysis of the data. First of all, a study of the distribution of I.Q.'s indicates that there was a somewhat better than average class. (See Table I)

As we can see 42% were above average whereas only 10% were below. To some extent this might be explained by saying that the youngsters with low I.Q.'s were in special schools. Perhaps the lowest I.Q.'s were missing for this reason, but we should also note that one child in the study had an I.Q. in the 60-69 range, 5 in the 70-79 range, and 52 in the 80-89 range. When we consider the reading achievement of the group, again we can see a somewhat better than average group.

Whereas about 20% were reading 2 or more grades below grade level, 35% were reading 2 or more grades above grade level. In considering the I.Q.'s of the class, however, we can see that more students are retarded in reading than would have been expected from their I.Q.'s. One very interesting feature was the wide distribution of reading achievement associated with a narrow range of I.Q. For example, girls with I.Q.'s between 90 and 99 had reading achievement scores ranging from grade 6.0 to 11.9. Boys with I.Q.'s of 90-99 range from a reading achievement of grade 5.0 to grade 10.9. It is also interesting to note that boys whose reading achievement scores are in the 6.0-6.9 range, vary in I.Q. from 70 to 109; whereas girls whose reading achievement scores are grade 6.0-6.9 vary in I.Q. from 70 to 99. When the correlation between the I.Q. and reading achievement was calculated, it was found that the Pearson r for girls was .77 and for the boys .91. Thus we can see a very high correlation for both but especially high for the boys.

On the self concept questionnaire were certain statements investigating the opinions of the 10th graders about reading, college, and school. Those questions which showed a significant relationship with reading achievement (when analyzed by Chi Square method) are here presented in a scattergram to show the distribution of answers according to reading achievement grade. (See Table III).

As we can see, an overwhelming number of the class, both boys and girls, strongly disagreed with this idea. This is interesting especially in the light of the fact that most of these youngsters at the time of testing were either 15½ or 16 years old and would have been legally able to quit in the next year. It is surprising that the very few who strongly agreed with this statement ranged all the way from grade 4.0 on reading achievement to grade 12.9.

A second statement in self concept significantly related to reading achievement was the following:

"College is only for those who can afford it." A wider distribution (See Table IV) of answers was found, but again a majority was in disagreement with this statement. The answers of the boys and girls did not differ very greatly.

A third significant statement brought some very interesting results and was particularly viewed differently by the boys and girls. This was the statement: "Girls don't need college." (See Table V). In reacting to this statement, many more of the girls were in disagreement than the boys. Only one girl, and she with a reading level of only grade 4-4.9, strongly agreed: whereas 11 boys of a wide variation of reading achievement from grades 6-11.9 strongly agreed.

On the statement "I want to get married within the next year," only a very few responded with strong agreement. (See Table VI). Most of the students disagreed either strongly or to some extent.

On the statement: "Only eggheads like to read" a wider distribution of reactions was found. (See Table VII). More girls than boys strongly disagreed. Surprisingly few students of either sex agreed: only 7 strongly agreed and 6 agreed out of the 582 students, something less than 2% of the group.

One statement "Reading is a feminine occupation" brought some interesting results. (See Table VIII). There is a fairly wide distribution of answers and they are fairly consistent from both boys and girls. A correlation between the answers on this question and reading achievement show a Pearson r of —.26. Though this is a relatively low negative correlation, it shows some relationship between the two.

The last significant statement was: "If there is no other way to get to college, a student should borrow money." (See Table IX). The results on this question were distributed but with more than a third in favor. The responses of both boys and girls are very similar in their distribution.

This statistical study of one tenth grade class in a comprehensive high school gives an encouraging picture. Whereas 10% are below average in I.Q., 42% are above average. 20% had reading scores 2 or more grades below grade level, but 35% had scores 2 or more grades above. In this study boys were reading about as well as the girls, in contrast to what most studies find true in the elementary school. Of the boys in this study, 19.7% were reading 2 or more grades below grade level while 19.3% of the girls were reading 2 or more grades below grade level. The majority of both the boys and girls want to stay in school, feel that college is for both boys and girls, and is not just for those who can afford it. They seem willing to borrow money for college if necessary. They feel that reading is not strictly for eggheads, and disagree that it is a feminine occupation. In general these tenth graders show a very wholesome attitude toward reading and school.

Table I

I.Q.

	Below 90	90-109	110-129	130+
Boys	7.8 %	53.4%	36.9%	1.9%
Girls	12.07%	42.3%	41.8%	3.5%
Average	10.0 %	48.0%	39.0%	3.0%

Table II

Reading Achievement

	—4 gr	—3 gr	—2 gr	—1 gr	at gr	+1 gr	+2 gr	+3 gr
Boys	1.6%	6.3%	11.8%	13.9%	13.9%	20.4%	18.8%	13.5%
Girls	2.1%	7.9%	9.3%	11.1%	13.5%	20.0%	16.4%	19.0%

Table III I want to quit school during the next year.

Boys	A Strongly Agree	B Agree	C Neutral	D Disagree	E Strongly Disagree	
4.0-4.9				1		1
5.0-5.9				1	3	4
6.0-6.9			1	3	15	19
7.0-7.9	1	1	2	5	27	36
8.0-8.9	2		2	3	36	43
9.0-9.9			1	5	36	42
10.0-10.9			1	8	51	60
11.0-11.9			2	5	50	57
12.0-12.9	1		1	7	32	41
	4	1	10	38	250	303

Girls	A	B	C	D	E	
4.0-4.9	2				2	4
5.0-5.9					2	2
6.0-6.9	1		1	8	12	22
7.0-7.9			1	2	23	26
8.0-8.9			2	4	25	31
9.0-9.9			4	3	30	37
10.0-10.9	1	1	2	8	45	57
11.0.11.9			1	4	41	46
12.0-12.9	2		2	11	39	54
	6	1	13	40	219	279

Table IV College is only for those who can afford it.

Boys	A Strongly Agree	B Agree	C Neutral	D Disagree	E Strongly Disagree	
4.0-4.9				1		1
5.0-5.9			2	2		4
6.0-6.9	1	2	4	8	4	19
7.0-7.9	2	3	8	16	7	36
8.0-8.9	1	2	12	13	15	43
9.0-9.9	2	1	12	14	13	42
10.0-10.9	1	2	13	25	19	60
11.0-11.9		2	7	24	24	57
12.0-12.9		2	4	15	20	41
	7	14	62	118	102	303

Table IV College is only for those who can afford it.
CONTINUED

Girls	A Strongly Agree	B Agree	C Neutral	D Disagree	E Strongly Disagree	
4.0-4.9		2	1	1		4
5.0-5.9			1		1	2
6.0-6.9		2	5	10	5	22
7.0-7.9		2	5	9	10	26
8.0-8.9			5	12	14	31
9.0-9.9	2	2	4	20	9	37
10.0-10.9		3	12	22	20	57
11.0-11.9	2		5	22	17	46
12.0-12.9		1	2	24	27	54
	4	12	40	120	103	279

Table V Girls don't need college.

Boys	A Strongly Agree	B Agree	C Neutral	D Disagree	E Strongly Disagree	
4.0-4.9				1		1
5.0-5.9				3	1	4
6.0-6.9	1	1	6	6	5	19
7.0-7.9	3	4	11	14	4	36
8.0-8.9	4	3	9	22	5	43
9.0-9.9	1	5	10	18	8	42
10.0-10.9	1	11	19	15	14	60
11.0-11.9	1	9	19	16	12	57
12.0-12.9		4	9	15	13	41
	11	37	83	110	62	303

Girls	A	B	C	D	E	
4.0-4.9	1			2	1	4
5.0-5.9		1		1		2
6.0-6.9		1	6	7	8	22
7.0-7.9		1	9	5	11	26
8.0-8.9			7	11	13	31
9.0-9.9		1	8	10	18	37
10.0-10.9		2	15	18	22	57
11.0-11.9		2	1	15	28	46
12.0-12.9		1	6	12	35	54
	1	9	52	81	136	279

Table VI I want to get married within the next year.

Boys	A Strongly Agree	B Agree	C Neutral	D Disagree	E Strongly Disagree	Missing	
4.0-4.9				1			1
5.0-5.9				2	2		4
6.0-6.9				2	17		19
7.0-7.9		1	2	3	30		36
8.0-8.9	1		5	5	32		43
9.0-9.9				6	35	1	42
10.0-10.9		1	4	8	47		60
11.0-11.9	1		1	7	48		57
12.0-12.9			5	6	30		41
	2	2	17	40	241	1	303

Table VI I want to get married within the next year.
CONTINUED

	A Strongly Agree	B Agree	C Neutral	D Disagree	E Strongly Disagree	Missing	
Girls							
4.0-4.9			1	1	2		4
5.0-5.9					2		2
6.0-6.9		1	3	6	12		22
7.0-7.9		1	2	2	21		26
8.0-8.9			3	6	22		31
9.0-9.9	1	1	5	6	24		37
10.0-10.9			8	13	36		57
11.0-11.9			2	7	37		46
12.0-12.9		1	2	8	43		54
	1	4	26	49	199		279

Table VII Only eggheads like to read.

Boys	A Strongly Agree	B Agree	C Neutral	D Disagree	E Strongly Disagree	Missing	
4.0-4.9				1			1
5.0-5.9				2	2		4
6.0-6.9		1	3	6	9		19
7.0-7.9	2	2	3	14	15		36
8.0-8.9	2	1	6	12	22		43
9.0-9.9			6	20	15	1	42
10.0-10.9	1		8	15	36		60
11.0-11.9		1	10	19	27		57
12.0-12.9		1		16	24		41
	5	6	46	105	150	1	303

Girls	A	B	C	D	E		
4.0-4.9			1	2	1		4
5.0-5.9				1	1		2
6.0-6.9			2	14	6		22
7.0-7.9	1		2	4	19		26
8.0-8.9			2	12	17		31
9.0-9.9			4	12	21		37
10.0-10.9			4	14	39		57
11.0-11.9	1		2	10	33		46
12.0-12.9			2	8	44		54
	2		19	77	181		279

Table VIII Reading is a feminine occupation.

Boys	A Strongly Agree	B Agree	C Neutral	D Disagree	E Strongly Disagree	Missing	
4.0-4.9		1					1
5.0-5.9			2		2		4
6.0-6.9	1	1	5	4	8		19
7.0-7.9	2	2	6	14	12		36
8.0-8.9	1	2	5	15	20		43
9.0-9.9		1	8	15	17	1	42
10.0-10.9		3	7	17	33		60
11.0-11.9	1	1	6	17	32		57
12.0-12.9		3	1	11	26		41
	5	14	40	93	150	1	303

Table VIII Reading is a feminine occupation.
CONTINUED

	A Strongly Agree	B Agree	C Neutral	D Disagree	E Strongly Disagree	Missing	
Girls							
4.0-4.9	1		1	1	1		4
5.0-5.9	1				1		2
6.0-6.9		3	6	10	3		22
7.0-7.9	1	1	1	12	11		26
8.0-8.9		1	9	10	11		31
9.0-9.9		1	3	13	20		37
10.0-10.9		3	10	17	27		57
11.0-11.9	1			14	31		46
12.0-12.9	—	—	2	13	39		54
	4	9	32	90	144		279

Table IX

If there is no other way to get to college,
a student should borrow money.

Boys	A Strongly Agree	B Agree	C Neutral	D Disagree	E Strongly Disagree	Missing	
4.0-4.9	1						1
5.0-5.9		2	2				4
6.0-6.9	2	4	9	4			19
7.0-7.9	2	10	11	6	7		36
8.0-8.9	8	8	17	4	6		43
9.0-9.9	8	13	15	5	1		42
10.0-10.9	9	23	15	7	6		60
11.0-11.9	8	25	19	1	3	1	57
12.0-12.9	10	13	15	2	1	—	41
	48	98	103	29	24	1	303

Girls	A	B	C	D	E	
4.0-4.9	1	1		2		4
5.0-5.9		1			1	2
6.0-6.9		5	10	6	1	22
7.0-7.9	4	4	9	6	3	26
8.0-8.9	4	6	18	1	2	31
9.0-9.9	4	11	16	6		37
10.0-10.9	5	24	20	7	1	57
11.0-11.9	3	28	13	1	1	46
12.0-12.9	16	18	18	2	—	54
	37	98	104	31	9	279

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THE FEARFUL TASK — TRYING TO TEACH READING IN THE TWO-YEAR COLLEGE

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This title gives some indication of the writer's feeling upon finishing another semester of trying to improve the reading skills of students in a two-year college. Each semester the time seems shorter, the need greater, the questions recurring concerning our students: Why didn't this work? How can we be more certain to discover their weaknesses? Was the balance of time for practice good? Why couldn't we capture that one's interest? and so on and on — What are we trying to do?

It is necessary for us to know what this "thing" called READING is before we review some of the problems connected with its teaching. The definition of reading is most elusive. The physical, mental and emotional factors which are involved complicate the so-called "process" to the ultimate. To refer only to the Judson and Baldridge discussion in **Techniques of Reading** of the "Eye-page-mind" relationship is a gross simplification, effective as it is as a graphic description. MacDonald and Zinny in the Preface to **The Art of Good Reading** state: "Understanding and flexibility are the two main ingredients of effective reading . . . The stress is understanding . . . The goal set forth here is to read flexibly in order to achieve the desired level of understanding with maximum efficiency."

These authors go on to list the characteristics of the effective reader, mentioning motivation as the first of these. We know the importance of this factor yet we hear good teachers talking as if motivation were non-existent. We teachers have had reality face us. We know all reading cannot be highly interesting, highly exciting. Unfortunately many text books are poorly written, but the harsh fact remains that one must read them and do it effectively. The means for accomplishing this, MacDonald and Zinny go on to say: Include purpose: reasonable initial understanding, both of ideas and words; reasonable rate: avoidance of sub-vocalization and repeated regressions; recognition of organization; and several environmental factors, such as time, place for reading, memory and adventure in reading.

If students tell their counselors "None of my English courses never taught me nuttin" as was reported recently, there must be a reason. Such a student has never had the thrill of becoming totally involved with what an author is saying, but more strikingly, is further evidence that the students must be considered to be as complex as the process of reading itself.

Part of our difficulty in defining reading lies in our comfortable attitude toward it since we know how to read, and what is more deadly for students, we like reading and finding it easy, we probably have never experienced their frustrations. We need to be aware of them. Reading is the interpretation of symbols having meanings agreed upon by writer and reader, we glibly state. It is more than that when one reads creatively by involving his entire self, his experience, his feelings, beliefs, his knowledges and judgments. A reading experience should contribute to one's thinking and knowledge. This implies enjoyment of varying intensity. But what of him who, never having read, never having travelled far from home, attempts to cope with Humanities I and Socrates? To him the definition of reading is "boredom and frustration."

The content for a course in reading can be adapted for the traditional remedial course or expanded in any area as the needs arise. The philosophy of one's college, whether it be the firm adherence to a tracking system, or the more humane and equally effective non-tracking, the number of students needing help, the available staff and the facilities all determine course content. One does not enroll in this as in some speed reading course, pay one's fee and hope something will happen. The community college does not operate in this crass manner. There is more to a college course than that one-way street.

What can be included in a college course to improve reading? Many colleges use high school grades, college aptitude tests or various diagnostic tests to assess achievement at entrance. Providing that there is a wide range battery of results from which to determine competence this system is sound. Another important factor is that the so-called competence or lack of it be based upon reasonable hope of actually helping the student to succeed. It appears at times as if the purpose of such cut-off scores is to thin the ranks, much as one hears teachers gleefully proclaim that "this assignment will get rid of the loafers, then we can get on with something worth-while." If this seems cynical and bitter, it is meant to be. Why teach at all if we cannot at least attempt to help those who need it most? The apt student will learn in spite of us. Either before, or early in the course, we should further test to diagnose strengths and weaknesses. Note that the writer does not call them disabilities. Problems they are, but disability and deficiency have a devastating negative connotation.

These students have been negatively dealt with almost ever since they started their formal education. At this time we shall not attempt to mention specific diagnostic tests. There are many. The more varied the skills tested the better profile one can assemble. All available testing scores should also be available to the reading teacher. There is a strange dichotomy when a student is required to take hours of tests and then a great mystery shrouds their results. He is the one most concerned. He has to live with his capabilities and he has to develop them or not. He probably knows nearly as much as tests tell anyway. This is the way he is, now let us plan to help him strengthen and devolop himself. Following this the use of tests at the conclusion of a course serves the learning function well. We and he can assess our progress also. Students are realistic; let us be the same.

The colleges which place students in various levels of remedial work may find it helpful to avoid the camouflage of calling the course Psychology, Study Skills or whatever. All are courses in Communication through reading. The students who lack word attack skills can concentrate on developing their knowledge of phonics, knowledge in applying phonemic theory, but hopefully trough reading, not in isolation. The real carry over of isolated phonics or vocabulary rarely goes beyond the stage of "It seems we did have that word but what does it mean?" Let them read—not watered down pap, but current vital ideas. Maybe we prefer MacLuhan or Churchill or E. E. Cummings, but do they? Are they ready for the struggle or are they weary from lack of success with our choices in previous school years?

It would be presumptuous to outline courses of study here, but there are some areas of assistance that are valuable whatever system one uses for grouping. One of these is "hardware." To dispose of the place of machines and speed in reading it is only necessary to say that they can help some people. In some eighteen or twenty years of this work the writer has discovered no appreciable difference in results when machines were used than when not available. Careful research by others seems to bear this out. True, most feel that they help by motivating or by controlling speed. Our tendency when timing speed is to err in the students' favor. Greater spread of levels of difficulty need to be prepared for use in this way. Additional types of materials need to be developed for use with the various machines. With due respect to films we can dispose of them by realizing that Elbert Hubbard does not "turn on" this generation. The use of other controlled pacers and phrase reading devices is stimulating to most students.

Lighter, easily comprehended articles are useful in this manner, but most readings should and can be "good literature." There is much in the past which has appeal today. There is much written today on what students think are new problems which are well-written by even our stringent standards of excellence. Let us not spoil an artistic writing by using it for a laboratory dissection of sentence structure, paragraph organization or logic, at least until it has been enjoyed in its entirety as intended. Use something which even more sharply and negatively emphasizes our principles through being poorly written. Actually the negative is easier to recognize. Students are alert to confused presentation, to wordiness, to false conclusions when they try to read them and cannot understand. Compared later with a logical, well-written selection, they rather quickly recognize the differences.

The matter of developing the ability to form an opinion of the author's point of view or purpose when we develop critical reading criteria takes longer. All their lives they have been told to read every word, read carefully, remember WHAT you read. No matter how hard the junior high or secondary teachers try to overcome this they have difficulty. Part of this stems from immaturity of the reader. They need every chance to become more dependent persons. We reading teachers can help them clarify their values and their aims by assisting them in reading critically. After all, they will vote too, and there will be more votes in our community from them and their fellows than from us. Let us help them to enjoy the work of thinking.

If you are not a happy, enthusiastic, energetic, and at times discouraged human when you try to teach reading improvement, get out of that classroom as soon as you and the administration can arrange it. You do everyone an injustice. Most administrators want us to do our best work. The manner in which we accomplish this is different for each of us. To be assigned to remedial or developmental reading and to continue trying to teach there while disliking it but without doing anything about it is being dishonest.

There are not many teacher training schools that specifically recognize training for the two-year college teacher. Most of us fill in the EXPERIENCE Section on the application for a teaching position by having been an elementary, secondary, or four-year college classroom. Some just think it fun to teach at the college level in which they have studied thus perpetuating their own student image but forgetting that they have changed by their experiences, plus the fact that generally speaking they started their college experiences from different kinds of environment from that of many junior college students and with considerably more motivation.

The four-year colleges have an ill-met responsibility for specific teacher training for the community two-year college. Of what should this consist? There is something favorable to be said for learning **How** to do something as well as **what** it is. A course for us should review as many beliefs as possible from Plato to the present on "The Process of Reading." To define the philosophical place of reading is necessary in a world of cacaphony. Today reading tends to get pushed into the background. This course should include much knowledge of research on what happens when we read. Good texts presented for our help hint at this subject. It is necessary at the present for us to have the initiative to seek out all these bits and pieces and put them together. A rigid school of thought which precludes recognition of the person's needs and preferences is abhorrent. There is no one way, nor any best way that reading takes place. But rather there are many factors bearing on the process which cause its varied results. We can read, but how? Try giving a bulletin to 200 teachers asking that they check a column or return a report in a particular form and you have an example of what we mean. Teachers of reading do not always read efficiently either. This course would be based on philosophical attitudes plus any psychological or medical research concerning what really happens when one reads.

Psychology of broad scope is a must. Until we demand the opportunity to learn how to learn all we can about the people with whom we are confronted in the reading class we will continue to struggle and raise our competence by our own ingenuity in ferreting out scattered courses and collating the information on the job. We need to be counselors. Our students have problems and while the writer strongly supports non-directive counsel, the teacher of reading must be prepared to present as many phases of reality and as many possibilities for success with their related ways of achieving them as humanly possible.

You probably feel this attitude on teacher education eliminates knowledge of literature and composition. Not at all. The danger in our personal wide backgrounds in literary studies lies in our imposing our tastes on a different generation. How many of you have read **It's Happening** by Simmons and Winograd, at the moment referred to as "The hottest book on college campuses," dealing with politics, sex, music and "trips"? Our reading when in college was not confined to our text books. But one cannot hope to get enthusiasm if more of what they already hate is presented. Reading is fascinating. Reading is intriguing. Be prepared to give something they will enjoy.

Little reading means little vocabulary; little vocabulary means little reading. That vicious circle can be broken. The teacher of reading needs history of the language and phonics. We need to know how to unlock a word with which we have had no previous experience. We need to be taught how to teach this area. Better still we need to know how to inspire interest in words. Not the "five words each used in the three sentences and the word is yours" approach. No wonder they groan when we smugly announce that now they will begin vocabulary study. How can they begin to study that which is in use? There is no suggestion in that statement of a thrilling experience, nor is there any warning that we know it is hard work but also know its worth. We tend not to be honest with our students.

Another phase of our training must be in a reading laboratory. The assumption that one can learn by reading "about" something and then do it is false. One can do it better for having the theories or having reviewed the experience of others, but until one is confronted with fifteen or more people who have enrolled in college but who lack proficiency in this basic skill it is impossible to envision the drain in one's emotional and mental capacities. One does not beat this into their skulls. Teaching at best is hard work. But those first days, yes, even weeks can be awful in front of a reading class unless one has had some experience even with one or two students who need help in overcoming a deep seated problem.

We who work at this know that one cannot learn to teach reading in one easy lesson. One does not learn by reading a book. One does not change habits by getting a text book filled with exercises and turning students loose. These are people. The authors of their books were people. There are ways of understanding, evaluating, or just plain translating the graphics on the page, and bringing the communication process into play. Our job is to help some one do this better.

ADULT LITERACY:
APPROPRIATE MEASURES FOR USE IN APPRAISAL

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We are told from all sides that there are millions of illiterate adults in our country, and regardless of the definition used, the dimensions of this problem are simple and quite obvious. But there are also serious implications. Illiteracy appears to be related to unemployment, poverty, and anti-social behavior. And it is not surprising that many people get excited and hopeful about attacking the total "disadvantaged syndrome," even with all its interacting forces. This statement from a recent speech represents quite well a sense of hope and a sense of urgency:

> The entire assumption . . . is that this nation can abolish poverty if it wishes, and eliminate illiteracy in the process. Time and resources are too precious to waste in a debate on whether the goal can be accomplished.[1]

And thus, in many cases, literacy programs have become part of a larger enterprise which embraces basic education, high school equivalency, job training, personal development, and citizenship. As an example, the typical Manpower Skills Training Center pays its "students" for their work while they also undertake programs in basic education, specific job-training, and family management.

But let me suggest that **because** of these broad concerns and the sense of urgency, there have been few, if any, attempts to design a grand plan of curriculum development and evaluation which could discover the "best" comprehensive program or the characteristics of those who benefit most. This problem has been stated very well and very bluntly in a recent report:

> Since no consistent testing and reporting procedures are (currently) required, it is impossible to make an objective qualitative evaluation of the effectiveness of existing adult literacy training programs.[2]

We face the same problems in developing and evaluating curricula for adults as we have already faced in programs for children. A systematic approach to these requirements is needed in adult basic education and while setting specific objectives and using them as the basis for the curriculum and the testing procedures may be more common now than 15 years ago, still the careful delineation of objectives is not viewed as a **sine qua non.** As an example of the difficulty, let me cite two statements made on the same page of a state basic education guide.[3] The first says that emphasis should be given to the "speech, reading, thinking, writing and figuring skills that are needed by adults" for effective community participation. The second states that the program purpose is to provide the educational content "necessary for an elementary credential and for entrance into high school." The first implies that instruction be geared to the real-world needs of adults; the second makes the earning of that certificate the goal, rather than functional skills. Which set of objectives shall the curriculum be built around?

A major problem, then, is that while we are being told that illiteracy is here, and may be here to stay, we are being asked from all sides to supply the means of training and testing illiterates. The profession is not fully prepared to meet these needs quickly, except in the sense of "what has worked for me." I would like to prejudice you in favor of some of my biases about appropriate measures for assessing progress in literacy. Let me first repeat two salient points. The first is that by and large, literacy programs are part of an endeavor seeking to affect the lives of untutored and likely unemployed adults. The second is that the outcomes (the objectives) that we want our students to evidence becomes the basis of the specifications for the assessment measures.

These specifications will grow out of what objectives we want to measure, how often, how, and even when in some cases. They will also grow out of whom we wish to measure, for how long, under what conditions, and how we anticipate they will react. Thus, our major concern is to be clear about how we move from the objectives to the specifications and then to the actual tasks, so that the tasks are addressed to adult populations and are valid means of getting data.

In a recent exciting book on measurement in social science,[4] the authors express some parallel concerns about the appropriateness of using only interviews and questionnaires without checking their tendency to make subjects "react." They cite the "reactive qualities" of these devices—that is, the measures intrude into the natural setting and tend to create attitudes as well as measure them. For example, the subject reacts: "I'm being tested, so I'll be dishonest or defensive"; and the investigator himself may have reactive potential, in that he provides many cues to his subjects or changes his own rôle between initial and follow-up interviews. They admit a lack of concrete evidence of these invalidating "reactive" effects, but they wish to minimize the risk by two means: using several different sources of data and employing techniques devoid of reactive potential. Thus, in determining the popularity of a museum piece, for example, one counts heads and interviews visitors, but he also counts the noseprints on the glass case! This is unobtrusive gathering of data, since by that time the culprits have already left.

I'm not sure that we can develop "non-reactive" measures to apply directly to assessment in basic education, but I do think that there are several important and clear implications. First, we must look at the standardized test and its manual and ask whether it elicits reactions negative to the purposes of the test. Second, we must consider asking subjects to demonstrate directly the many skills we aim for, instead of asking them to "imagine that this list is a telephone directory." Third, we must employ several measurement techniques instead of depending upon a single test or one type of task. We are indeed limited by having only a total score put into grade-level or percentile terms. And a fourth implication: we may discover that when we apply the three implications outlined above, we derive data otherwise left to the subjective impression. Instead of concluding that "the class improved in following directions," we may say that "subject X followed this particular direction in this situation in this amount of time." We want to be able to describe the behaviors engaged in.

Because of these many considerations, it becomes important to choose wisely the tasks we present and also consider the setting. As we all know, though, existing tests, generally speaking, are sterile, somewhat cold, and sometimes awesome. Generally speaking, too, the content and procedures in tests are limited to a few familiar characteristics. For example, a fairly recent test[5] which has been recommended for use in assessing adult progress, consists only of paragraphs followed by questions. And it's doubtful that the tone and content could be appealing to semi-literate adults. Another test,[6] published in 1967, and entitled the "Adult Basic Reading Inventory," contains several tasks (including sight words and letter discrimination!), but one wonders whether a "good" score on the test would indicate that an adult is ready to handle the necessary and real reading tasks that face him in home, work, and community. Can we perhaps establish criteria for effective reading that are based on something besides answers to someone else's questions? We should note, too, that these tests, and others being developed, are to be administered in a standard way, with time limits, and with directions and language that imply a considerable professional distance from the adult subjects. As one manual says, "If any examinee appears to be a total illiterate, encourage him to keep trying." Can we do better than this? Otherwise, I'm afraid that we may be only taking the standardized, middle-class, paper-and-pencil, sixth-grade-content,

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stiff-language, multiple-choice test and forcing it on adults who have good reason to react negatively. I have no data to support this inference of negative reaction, but like the authors previously mentioned, I would rather not take the risk.

I have outlined some basic concerns and have referred to recently developed tests as well as the concept of "reactivity," in order to lay the groundwork for a few recommendations.

1. We must continue to guard against letting tests dictate program objectives. Rather, the objectives should result from careful thought about adults as persons, and then should be used faithfully in setting test specifications. One way to aid in accomplishing this is to seek the cooperation of employers, counselors, businessmen, educators, psychologists, writers, and the impoverished adults themselves—and ask them as a team to spell out the whole range of reading behaviors and attitudes they see as important for our subject populations.

2. We must find content and materials which are directed to adults as persons and as learners. This means using real-world sources (such as newspapers, job manuals, menus, ads, union requirements) which are oriented to the interests and concerns of adults: home, cars, taxes, shopping, sports, jobs, safety, and health, to name a few. Another concern is the language employed. The real-world, even for us, has more than one language, more than one style, one level of usage, or one set of idioms.

3. We must develop meaningful tasks to elicit the specific behaviors we wish to measure. For example, realistic job-tasks can be set up which require reading, writing, and figuring. Useful reading tasks—requiring a variety of skills—can be built around maps, objects, films, application forms, and so on. As subjects engage in these activities, the behaviors, materials, and settings can be recorded and the behaviors then checked against performance criteria. One useful point is that such tasks make it difficult to derive a single score. We report behaviors!

4. We must be willing to try ways of getting the data we seek—in addition to our usual standardized measures. Unobtrusively, we can note the number and quality of the free-reading choices students make; and we can infer useful information from choices made among optional performance tasks. Similarly, we may learn of subjects' attitudes through their behaviors in discussions, in role-play, and in task performance. Another consideration is the setting employed. John Dailey[7] argues for the use of a camp situation for assessing ap-

titudes and interests, as with the Job Corps. And if the camp, why not the factory? An intriguing article entitled "Testing the Untestables"[8] outlines the use of graded real-work tasks in evaluating job potential in a factory setting. Subjects explore many jobs as they undergo tasks involving reading, recording, constructing, following directions, planning, manipulation, and so on. The program directors are interested in the task concept here, but they also feel that their technique minimizes their subjects' reactive responses. One exciting feature of many such programs is that they teach and test at the same time, making use of assessment data as they are gathered.

Certainly these four recommendations do not provide answers to all the problems that have been discussed. Indeed, they create new ones, such as the need for a great deal more individual measurement. Nonetheless, these suggestions do appear to provide some guidelines for developing appropriate measures and valid techniques to use in assessing the outcomes of literacy training within the context of the broad all-purpose programs now underway for "undereducated" adults.

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SOME MEASURABLE ASPECTS OF CREATIVITY IN WRITING

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Creativity and its relationship to human endeavor have been of great concern to many for a long period of time. Throughout the years, creativity has been judged by inventions, publications, works of art, and scientific endeavors. Educators too, are concerned with the creative ability of the individual. Children are "taught" to read creatively, to think creatively, and to write creatively. One of the major aims of the American educational system today is the discovery and fostering of creative talent. The essence of this modern movement in education is the idea of the creative experience.[1]

This emphasis on creativity, which has infiltrated the classroom, has caused a general over-simplification of the term and a tendency to label as "creative" any product which a child might produce when allowed the freedom of expression. Peterson and Robinson[2] have cautioned against the dangers to education if this approach is allowed to continue.

Brittain[3] has defined creativity as:

> . . . constructive, productive behavior which can be seen in actions or accomplishments. It also implies originality in thinking in so far as an individual is concerned; that is, it does not need to be a unique phenomenon in the world. It also implies an uncoerced individual contribution, but does not mean that the thoughts, actions, writings, inventions, drawings or paintings must spring from a source outside the experience of the individual concerned.

Creative writing throughout the junior high school years has received little attention and much less investigation. In fact, creative writing itself has not been investigated to any great degree. Much of the information known to educators concerning the creative writing of school children exists in the form of major generalizations. Guilford[4] said: The neglect of this subject by psychologists is appalling." After a careful examination of the index of **Psychological Abstracts** for each year since its origin, Guilford found that of the 121,000 titles listed over a 23 year period, only 16 titles were included under such categories as creativity, imagination, originality, thinking, and tests in those areas.

A redirection of emphasis from the nature of the creative person to that of the results of the creative process is apparent in many of the following investigations.

Witty[5] studied creative writing resulting from specific motivation through the use of the film, "The Hunter in the Forest." A two thousand student population which represented all of the elementary grades participated. The writings were judged by the following criteria: (1) genuine feeling, (2) sensitivity to the value of particular words, phrases, and larger units in their written expression, (3) recognition of the film producer's intent and the significance of symbolic representations, and (4) correct and appropriate use of language. The experimenter concluded that nearly 10 percent of the students demonstrated a potential ability in creative writing. He also found that children do write well from vicarious experiences.

Supporting Witty's conclusions were the findings of Edmund.[6] He investigated the writings of fifth grade students and found that creative writing based on derived experiences produced a greater number of written words as well as a greater number of derived words when compared to writings based on direct experiences.

Many very early studies investigating creative writing dealt with such aspects as word counts, comparison of words written to those appearing on constructed word lists, personal language of young children, grammatical classifications, linguistic characteristics, structural patterns in writing and stylistic factors of composition. Essentially these researchers found criteria for evaluating grammar, mechanics of written composition, and correct language usage.

A study investigating the personal element and personal language of children was done by Cooper.[7] His findings showed there was a marked decrease in the amount of personal stories written by children as they moved from first through third grade. By using the incomplete story, Seaton[8] found that students sometimes write extremely distorted stories about their personal life in order to impress the reader. Moe[9] found significant differences in the quality of children's writing when a variety of stimuli were used as compared to those who wrote without the stimuli. Hartzig[10] concluded that in the following ways brighter children wrote better than did duller children: (1) they wrote more stories containing description with invention, (2) they wrote more creative narrative stories, (3) they used many more descriptive words in order to write longer stories and (4) they were more independent in their reactions to stimuli.

An investigation of methods for stimulating children to write original stories was undertaken by Carlson.[11] The report shows that: (1) methods used in this investigation stimulated about ninety-nine per cent of the experimental and eighty-seven percent of the

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control subjects to write original stories on all the lessons of the experiment, (2) pupils who were given a variety of four stimuli significantly exceeded children given story titles in the quality which was measured, (3) most teachers seem to have obtained more original story products from children in their classes if they are given assistance in planning lessons and obtaining needed stimulus materials, (4) children of middle occupational parents profit more than children of professional parents when they are given a variety of stimuli and encouragement and write creatively, (5) vocabulary skill appears to need development over a long period of time, (6) a more detailed scale may be useful when an experimenter has time to analyze children's writings, and (7) pupils in this study wrote many more words than did children at the same grade level who were involved in other language experiments.

Servey[12] found: (1) the quality is neither inhibited nor enhanced by the immediate motivational procedures beyond suggestion of the content, and (2) while not significantly so, intelligence, socioeconomic status, and age contribute to an individual's ability to write creatively.

In contrast to both Servey and Carlson, Monk[13] concluded that those children who read extensively on their own, whose parents read widely, and who come from homes with good libraries, tend to be superior writers. He found that there are relationships between creative writing and drawing; these relationships are low but positive.

May[14] discovered in his study that the correlation between creativity scores and intelligence was low.

Baker[15] ascertained that the ability to read is related to the ability to write creatively. The better the child reads, the stronger the possibility that he will score higher on the Analytical Creativity Scale, an instrument designed by Baker. Analytical Creativity Scale scores correlate more highly with reading scores than with I.Q. An even lower correlation is found with indices of socioeconomic status.

Whether or not extensive reading contributes to writing achievement was explored by Wyatt[16] in a study involving sixth grade students. Although a significant relationship was found between wide reading and writing achievement for a small isolated group, no consistently significant relationships were found among all the groups.

Rice[17] contended that a written work could be judged in its entirety or as a whole, thereby attempting to eliminate the mechanical procedures involved in rating compositions.

Another rather early attempt to devise a scoring system for written compositions was undertaken by Chassell.[18] He used a battery of tests consisting of the following: (1) Word-building, (2) Picture Writing, (3) Analogues, (4) Original Analogues, (5) the Chain Puzzle, (6) the Triangle Puzzle, (7) Royce Ring, (8) Word Completion Test, (9) Code Test, (10) Economic Prophecies, (11) Invention for Sheet Music and (12) Novel Situations. He found that three of the tests were most significant for such purposes, Analogues, Chain Puzzle, and Economic Prophecies.

MacKinnon[19] reported the findings of The Institute for Personality Assessment and Research. Some of their criteria for the creative personality were: (1) intelligence (however the most intelligent persons are not always the most creative), (2) originality, (3) independence in judgment, thought, and action, (4) a relative freedom from conventional inhibitions, (5) channeling of energy toward personal goals and activities which may conflict with those others hold for him, (6) perceptiveness to the experiences of both the inner self and the outer world, (7) intuitiveness in his perception and thought, and (8) high theoretical and esthetic interests.

In order to identify creativity, Piers, Daniels, and Quackenbush[20] administered tests to junior high school students. The scores were compared to teacher ratings on creativity. It was found that teacher ratings are not reliable because of the vagueness and variability of the meaning of creativity.

A scale of five divisions for scoring original stories was produced by Carlson.[21] Each division has from four to sixteen criteria with a total of 36 evaluative criteria in all.

Baker designed a series of materials to stimulate or motivate written creative expression. He also devised an Analytical Creativity Scale. This scale is made up of nine major divisions. Within these divisions there are 58 criteria for evaluative purposes.

After working with Torrance[22] and others at the University of Minnesota, Yamamoto[23] published **Experimental Scoring Manuals for Minnesota Tests of Creative Thinking and Writing**. The book outlines and explains some of the tests of creative thinking and writing and contains scoring directions and scales for those tests.

A creativity scale which was designed by this examiner, had as its background the research findings and evaluations of such noteworthy investigators as Yamamoto, Torrance, Carlson and Baker. The foregoing investigators as well as the present investigator carefully studied the results of Guilford in order to devise a justifiable instrument in light of some of the most recent and conclusive evidence.

The individual scores for the evaluation of creativity in writing are assessed in accordance with the following:

I. Sensitivity To The Problem

Student involvement with the situation described was demonstrated and scored in two possible ways.

A. Does the student identify with the problem? If the student used either one or a combination of the personal pronouns, I, me, my, mine, we, or ours, he was given a point.

B. Does the student use the first person singular in his writing? If the student used the pronoun, I, he received a point. It was possible, therefore, for the student to receive two points for the use of the pronoun, I, as it also refers to criterion A.

II. Flexibility

The ability to see various avenues of approach was evaluated on four counts.

A. Does the student see a variety of approaches to the problem? If the student approached the problem stated by the examiner in more than one way, he received a point.

B. Can the student interpret the problem in a variety of ways and present alternative solutions? A point was given if the student saw alternatives to the problem, within its original framework, and came up with alternative solutions which coincided with his alternatives to the problem.

C. Does the student synthesize the various factors involved in the problem? The student earned a point if he mentioned all of the factors given in the statement of the problem in the written presentation of his solution.

D. Does the student attempt to reorganize or redefine facts or happenings? Credit was afforded the student if he reworked, restated, or reevaluated the statements or happenings mentioned in the problem so that he could relate the situation to a prior familiar happening or a novel situation.

III. Ideas

This segment of the criteria concerns itself with what the student wrote and how he expressed that which he wrote. No consideration was given to formal grammar or punctuation.

A. Are the student's ideas novel? The student would have earned a one-point score if his writing expressed an idea which differed from those written responses given by the total group responding. A point was given for each novel idea expressed.

B. Does he use extraordinary words to convey or produce his ideas? If the student demonstrated a verbal fluency whereby he used a word or words which did not appear regularly in the writing of the group, a point was given.

IV. Fluency

The student's responses were carefully scrutinized in order to evaluate the following three areas.

A. Are the ideas expressed in a free flowing manner? Credit was given if there were signs of coherence and unity between ideas. The use of transitional words and relationship between ideas warranted credit.

B. Does the flow of ideas involve the reader's senses—sound, sight, taste, smell? If the student used words indicative of sensation and expressed his ideas in such a way that a sensual relationship was aroused, point credit was given.

C. Is there coherence and unity between the problem and the flow of ideas? As long as the student used the basic problem, related his writing to it, and found a solution for that problem he received a point.

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WHY EVERY COLLEGE NEEDS A DEVELOPMENTAL READING PROGRAM

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According to an anecdote in a contemporary novel, Destiny came down to an island many years ago and summoned three of its inhabitants before him. What would you do, Destiny demanded, if I told you that tomorrow this island would be completely inundated by an immense tidal wave?

The first man, who was a cynic, said: "Why, I would eat, drink, and carouse all night long."

The second man, who was a mystic, said: "I would go to the sacred groves with my loved ones and make sacrifices to the Gods, and pray without ceasing."

But the third man, who loved reason, thought for awhile, confused and troubled, and said: "Why, I would assemble our wisest men and begin at once to study how to live under water."

Today we are assembled to contemplate and discuss the tidal wave of enrollment which imminently will engulf existing colleges and universities. To those of us directly involved, a crucial aspect of the educational scene prior to the onslaught of this tidal wave is its portent for college developmental reading programs. This paper is presented with aspiration of speaking to the topic: Why Every College Needs a Developmental Reading Program. Preliminary to this major consideration, we propose to pursue two tangential aspects: 1. a philosophical base to current reading instruction; and 2. an historical base to current reading instruction.

One of the pioneer admonitions of reading instruction in the days of the Satin Deluder Act was the rather harsh pronouncement—"He who ne'er will learn his ABC's—forever will a blockhead be." And within this rigid framework of teaching, enforced and reinforced by the rule, the rattan, and the dunce-cap, it was assumed that reading, as were all intellectual endeavors, was designed to "exercise the brain" and discipline it toward ever more abstract and pedantic pursuits. In those Halcyon days, it was true that all grammar school graduates could read fluently and with facility (even though the dropout and the never-enrolled rate was upwards of sixty percent).

But eventually came winds of change. Rousseau wrote **Emile.** Pestalozzi wrote **Gertrude and How She Raised Her Children.** Froebel advocated a freeing of the mind in the educational process and later Piaget and Montessori challenged the bed-rock foundations of Formalism and Scholasticism as they had been known. Here in America — this child-centered study movement had fruition in the works of Cattell and Gesell, Ilge and Ames, and particularly in the ripening of the original American Philosophy of Education — John Dewey and the Progressive Movement.

But, following these balmy days of Southern breezes, the winds again shifted from the North and re-hardening of purpose, and consequently of philosophy, took place: the Modern Mathematics was born: Zacharias put M.I.T. physics into the Secondary School; Modern Languages were emphasized, and finally, Dr. Conant now prescribes calculus in any comprehensive secondary school worth its salt. We have come full cricle: and once again we hear the watchword—"He who ne'er will learn his ABC's, forever will a blockhead be."

Dr. Nila Banton Smith makes a masterful summary of her book **American Reading Instruction.** Dr. Smith states:[1]

> "More often than not, changes are brought about by the occurrence of a deep stress situation in American life. Reading seems to be so intricately interwoven with the warp and woof to life that it becomes a part of the living fabric of the American people during crucial epochs in our history."

The latest epoch Miss Smith sets forth as: From 1950-1965 Expanding Knowledge and Technology Revolution. During this latter period, there occurred a most dramatic event influencing American reading instruction. October the fourth, 1957—Sputnik I.

> "In 1964, President Lyndon B. Johnson announced his intention to make war on joblessness and on poverty. The basic medium advocated furthering these objectives was education, and reading is commonly recognized as the foundation upon which education is built."

In addition, Dr. Smith writes:[2] "There is an urgent need for reading instruction at college-adult levels." Heilman seconds:[3] "Today there is an almost universal respect for reading as a key to learning."

Further, largely attributable to Sputnik and the Cold War, the military have again come to evidence increasing concern with the reading skill of their personnel from the draftee private to the General Chiefs of Staff.

Jungeblut and Traxler[4] mention service-sponsored reading programs at the Naval Academy, the Army Quartermaster School, and at the Air University. Reporting the Air University program, Lt. Col. Estes recounts:[5]

> "I am not too sure we should be teaching reading at taxpayers' expense. But we do it because the need is genuine and the United States Air Force profits in the long run."

It should be mentioned that one of the Deans of American reading instruction, Dr. Paul Witty, earned the sobriquet "Father of the Literacy Movement in America" as a direct result of his literacy program for army illiterates during World War II. One final extra-curricular area of interest in adult reading improvement is to be found in business and industry. Cleland reports that he has conducted reading improvement classes for senior executive and technical staff of the Westinghouse Electric Company in Pittsburgh for the past twenty years. Again, we have come full circle. From a nation founded on the belief that every man had to read his Bible to save his own soul to a nation now equally convinced that it is contingent upon improved reading and learning skills for all members of our society if man is going to have a soul to save.

Ironically, the impersonality of the multiversity bids fair to emerge as a primary personal need of today's and tomorrow's freshman. Already, we feel the breeze presaging the immutable tidal wave of enrollment. This early, we see instructional technology sand-bagging a levy of television teaching, telewriter, telephone amplification, learning laboratories, and Carrell-mation: (a student in a booth with earphones, projectors, recorders, electronic typewriters and programmed-instruction on computer-assigned individual curricula trying to learn to read—not only how to read, but what to read. Van Roekel says:[6]

> Freshmen complain that they: read too slowly; fail to comprehend what they read; and need far more effective study procedures to meet the demands of a college curriculum."

Herein lies the function of college reading instruction. Dorothy Kendall Bracken[7] asserts that the answer to the question, "Why teach reading in college?" may be found in a consideration of the following topics: the reading burden of freshmen, the reading ability of entering freshmen, the offerings of college reading courses.

How may we expedite an over-view of the wide range of form, function, and fashion which today characterizes college reading instruction? Let us arrange the cardinal w's of journalism to our purpose in the order of: Why — Who and When — Where — and What; and apply them specifically to our consideration of college developmental reading. Why shall there be college developmental reading programs? Fishco[8] states:

> Asheim has pointed out four important factors concerning reading at the higher level:
> 1. Students with the best scholastic rating usually do more free reading.
> 2. Most college students' reading is course related.
> 3. Most college instructors expect more reading than they get.
> 4. It is seldom that much reading occurs on the initiative of the student unless the instructor has provided the motivation.

Glass indicates:[9] "The significance of the role of vocabulary development is evident to any student of reading."

Donald Smith warns:[10] "The disorganized student, the youngster who is most in need of learning **how** to learn, also profits most from appropriate instruction."

Maxwell advocates:

> "Today's college freshman faces far greater intellectual demands than any previous generation of college students. — He is expected to read well, listen effectively, and retain."[11] — "For the student, attaining a college degree has become a serious and highly competitive endeavor.[12]

Staiger points out :[13] "Discussion with professors will probably be cut-down because of the large classes of the future."

Masurkiewicz cautions:[14] "Most colleges caught in maelstrom of spiraling faculty costs, are examining various courses and programs; to eliminate those in which registration is small."

Who shall enroll in college reading programs and when? Wright[15] refers to high school students: Olson,[16] to all Freshmen during the Orientation Program, while Glass[17] writes of a program in reading improvement for graduate students.

From Appalachian State College, Price states:[18]

> "If you were a Freshman at Appalachian State College in Boone, North Carolina, you would take one quarter of reading sometime during the year, regardless of how well you read. The course is required and carries credit.

Where shall college reading programs be sponsored? Staiger seems to be all-inclusive,[19] identifying as sponsors of college reading: Psychology, English, Education, Educational Psychology, and Personnel and Guidance Services.

What methods, materials and mechanical devices shall comprise college reading programs? McConihe[20] encompasses the wide variety of methods, materials and mechanical devices as she describes: the lecture method, demonstration method, discussion method, drill (both mechanical and by workbooks) and the programmed materials method. Other techniques include reading mechanized by accelerators, pacers, occluders, and tachistoscopic type apparatus.

To justify this wide array of motives, methods, mediums, and materials: utilized in college reading programs, Brigham tells us:[21]

> "If we are to guide student growth in abilities necessary to meet successfully the vast, complex, rapidly changing problems of our world, many approaches, applied flexibly, for many kinds of needs, are necessary."

Through all of these statements, we see a rainbow refracting myriad facets of what is hopefully an air-tight dialectic for univesal college developmental programs. Schleich states:[22]

> "The development of advanced reading skills is probably more essential to a college education and later to an alert and responsible citizenry than composition skills, or indeed any other skills."

Shaw[23] argues that each college should examine the aims of its reading program or if it does not offer one, it should consider its responsibility to provide one:

And Mazurkiewicz pronounces:[24]

> "The establishment of a college reading program implies that an institution has accepted its responsibility for assisting the student to make an adequate adjustment to college study. Some of the reasons for colleges accepting such an educational philosophy may be seen in the desirability of greater retention rates of those admitted."

In closing, the speaker once had the privilege of hearing the Dean of the Graduate School of one of our large state universities talk about the demands of his office. The Dean confided that the most vexing BARB of all his thorny problems was:

> "The realization that after the application of all of the screening criteria we can devise, many students whom we admit to advanced programs fail to complete those programs; but even more frustrating is the cold hard knowledge that we refuse admission to many candidates who would have succeeded had we granted them entrance."

This is the most impressively ethical statement we have heard an educational administrator make. Within the context of the personal needs of mililons of students lies our most ethical consideration. In all of the velocity of "G equals 32 feet-per-second squared" we face in our semesters or trimesters, it sometimes seems the only salvation to pause and recall: "each pupil is my sacred trust."

For all of the aforementioned reasons: the onrushing tidal wave of enrollments; the ideological crisis of national survival; the continually accelerating reading explosion; the retention and advanced program demands of our colleges and universities; and the basic to of these the personal, individual needs of each college student; we believe that we can categorically affirm that all colleges need developmental reading programs.

Failing this, we can only rationalize as did Louis XIV — "apres-nous le deluge" and hope that the ensuing downpour does not affect us as it did him.

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THE SPECIAL READING SERVICES

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In the New York City Public Schools, the first Reading Clinic known as Special Reading Services was opened in 1955. This program was set up as a special resource for children in the elementary schools who suffered from severe reading difficulty and had not benefited from the instructional facilities regularly available. From these early beginnings the Special Reading Services has grown so that at this writing it has eleven Reading Clinics located in eleven Assistant Superintendents' districts. Altogether during the school year 1965-66 about 3000 children were given instructional and clinical service either partially or totally.

The major objectives of the Special Reading Services program are as follows:

For the pupil: to improve his attitude toward reading, to raise his level of achievement in reading, and to bring about a more favorable personal-social adjustment.

For the classroom teacher: to include the teacher as a member of the team; to help the teacher to recognize the nature of the pupils problem both in the area of reading and in his emotional behavioral patterns; to explore with the teacher practices and procedures in which she can contribute in the effort to help this child; to share materials, practices, procedures that will assist the teachers in their instructional program.

For the parent: to guide and counsel the parents so that they not only develop insight into the problems of their children but also actively cooperate in the efforts to help the child.

For the school, the community: to participate in individual, grade, group and faculty conferences; to conduct workshops for the classroom teachers; to conduct workshops for the parents; to participate in parents' meetings; to communicate through reports and conferences pertinent insights or techniques that have proven to be effective in dealing with the emotionally disturbed retarded reader.

Staff

Each Clinic, with the exception of the first Clinic which has a much larger staff, is provided with a budgetary allotment of positions as follows:

3 teachers of reading
1 school psychologist
1 school social worker
½ day per week of the services of a psychiatrist
1 stenographer

Criteria for the Selection of Children

Children, essentially from the second, third and fourth grades, are referred to the Clinics by the principal.

1. Emotional maladjustment.
2. Evidence of potenital for learning as indicated by scholastic performance, standardized tests, teachers' estimate or individual intelligence tests.
3. Reading retardation of at least one and one-half years if the child is in fourth grade, and correspondingly greater or less retardation if the child is in a higher or lower grade than fourth.
4. Parental willingness to cooperate actively in the program. This includes parental consent for medical and ophthalmological examination and consent for psychiatric evaluation, if indicated.

Selection Procedures

1. Children are referred by the principals of the schools.
2. The Reading Counselors (teachers of reading) study the children's cumulative record, the test and health cards and any other data available.
3. The Reading Counselors confer with the present and past classroom teachers always with the approval of the principal of the school.
4. The Reading Counselors administer an appropriate achievement test in reading.
5. At this point the Reading Counselor submits the names of the

children who qualify to the psychiatric social worker. The psychiatric social worker then arranges appointments with the parents to describe the service and indicate the parental responsibilities for active cooperation. Parent signs consent slip at this time.

6. At the same time the psychiatric social worker is interviewing the mother, the child is brought to the Center for initial study by the psychologist. The child is now ready for admission to the services.

Diagnostic Procedures

Diagnosis involves all aspects of the pupil and his reading act; physical factors, personality factors, neurological, environmental and educational factors. Every child in the service is given a physical examination, an eye examination if the need is indicated, a speech examination, and a careful reading diagnosis. Follow-up for the physical needs is done by the social worker, and speech therapy when needed is provided by the speech improvement teachers. The diagnosis of the pupil's reading is done by the Reading Counselors. The pupil's educational history is studied, including his general attitudes towards school. The diagnostic procedures include an examination of the achievement test administered by the Reading Counselor to determine not only the level but also the degree of accuracy and the nature of errors. Further diagnosis is done by administering the Gray Oral Reading Test, the Roswell-Chall and the Informal Reading Inventory. The diagnostic check list developed by the Reading Clinic is used to record the pupil's diagnosed reading needs. Since diagnosis must be continuous, these procedures are carried out every three to four months. Thus, as old needs are met, new needs are recognized and provided for.

Underlying Philosophy

It is significant to indicate the viewpoint concerning reading difficulty which is accepted by the Director and supervisors of the program which obtains at all levels. Severe reading disability cannot be looked upon simply as a school failure in the sense that the child has been subjected to poor teaching. As a matter of fact, staff members report no cases of children whose reading difficulty can be traced directly only to an inadequate method of instruction.

Teamwork on the part of the clinical and instructional staff is geared first to careful diagnosis and then to finding the appropriate approach to the pupil and his parent which will lead to more normal growth. When this begins to take place, the Reading Counselor also becomes more effective and the pupil moves forward. There are no easy steps leading to the fulfillment of this objective; it comes about by intensive study of the pupils, creative teaching by their Reading Counselors and continued work with the parents and other school personnel.

Joint Planning

The findings of the educational and clinical staff are shared. Long range and immediate planning are tentatively outlined. Positive findings suggestive of the child's interests and aptitudes are noted and follow-up procedures are planned by the respective staff members. Since diagnosis is an ongoing process, the program evolves in accordance not only with the initial diagnosis but in response to the developing picture revealed during the instructional sessions, clinical contacts, conferences with classroom teachers and other school personnel. Special conferences are arranged to meet unusual and extreme situations in dealing with the very disturbed child. These conferences wherever possible include the classroom teacher who is an active member of the team.

The Program of Instruction

Children are seen in groups of six to eight for reading instruction twice a week for one hour each session. Each Reading Counselor serves two schools and about fifty children each week. Some children who are too disturbed to work in a group are seen individually until such time as they are able to function in a group setting. Reading Center rooms are set up in each school served by the Special Reading Services program. These rooms are attractively decorated so that the interest of the children can be stimulated and maintained.

The program is not remedial in the narrow sense of any one system or method of teaching. The Reading Counselors realize that the children have failed to learn to read because severe problems have interfered with their developing a normal motivation toward learning. The Reading Counselor seeks to find the most effective approach to each child's specific reading difficulty. The Clinic team's work with the child and his family contribute to a better understanding of his problems. Conferences are held with the classroom teacher to provide her with the findings and also to plan a program of the most effective procedures for learning within the classroom.

As special problems of the children are reported by parent, Reading Counselor or other personnel, the Clinic team becomes more involved in work with child and family. Often the emphasis may be on a continued casework relationship between the social worker and parent. For many children more detailed psychological examinations are necessary. When children do not respond normally to the Reading Counselor's approaches, a full study by the entire Clinic team, including neurological and psychiatric evaluation, is planned and arranged as soon as possible.

The Clinical staff members have regular individual treatment programs for selected children and their parents. Close contact is maintained among the members of the Clinic team and the Reading Counselor to insure the effectiveness of the treatment plans. A continuing relationship with the classroom teacher is maintained, so that she is kept apprized of our diagnosis in the total program. In turn, she keeps the Reading Clinic staff apprized of the pupil's learning and behavior patterns in the classroom.

Teacher Education

Teacher education is an important aspect of this program. The Clinic team and Reading Counselor hold individual and group conferences periodically with the classroom teachers whose children are in the service. In addition, many principals have requested these resource personnel to participate in grade, faculty and special conferences. Demonstration lessons by request of the principals are given for the teachers. The Reading Counselor sets up a Reading Center room in each school that is being served. This serves as a resource center and contains suggested techniques and procedures which may be utilized by the classroom teachers. Principals schedule classroom teachers to visit these rooms. Materials developed by the Reading Counselor are shared with the school.

Record Keeping

Record keeping constitutes an integral part of the work of all Special Reading Services staff members. On file for each child are two folders. One is the confidential case material, which is recorded and used only by the Clinic team. The other is the Reading Counselor's plan and anecdotal record, which provides an ongoing narrative of the child's development in reading. This folder also contains records of diagnostic and achievement tests in reading; the findings of the teacher of speech improvement; and reports of conferences with the Clinic team and classroom teachers.

Evaluation Procedures

An achievement testing program is administered each May. In January, the Reading Counselor tests selected children who may have achieved grade level. Classroom teachers are asked to complete an evaluation form depicting the pupil's total progress both in reading and in the personal-social area. The pupils are also asked to reply to certain questions regarding how they view their progress in the reading program. The social worker in her contacts with the parents obtains from them their assessment of the child's progress in reading in relationships with his siblings and other members of the home. Principals submit a written evaluation of the total service each June.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS FOR HELPING CHILDREN IN SPECIAL READING IMPROVEMENT PROGRAMS

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Reading improvement can and does take a multitude of directions, but for specific delineation, a special reading improvement program is special in that: (1) the students are selected because they are experiencing significant reading difficulty in their grade placement and (2) the program is in addition to any regularly established grade placement reading program in the school. Therefore, while most of the considerations to be presented apply to other organizational patterns for homogeneous grouping in reading, they were not designed specifically for such programs.

The two major objectives of a special reading improvement program are: (1) improvement of self-concept and (2) improvement of reading. It is imperative that these two objectives be accepted as being of equal importance. If the improvement of self-concept and the improvement of reading are not both believed to be of utmost importance, the program will follow a less desirable skewed course. How can these two objectives be met? The answer is the basis for designing the program. Unfortunately some programs have obviously been designed for the sake of organization and have little or no relationship to helping children. Our state Title I officials have justifiably become more and more demanding in their approval procedures by requiring that we "fit" the program to the child and stop trying to "fit" the child to the program.

How many students are achieving so far below their grade placement that they cannot ordinarily receive the help needed? Many sources have long stated that approximately one-fourth of the total school population has such a need. This may well vary from one-eighth to more than one-third depending on the distribution of the school. But more important, how many or those students in severe need are presently included in special reading improvement programs? A good estimate is that it varies from none, where there is no special reading program, to one-half, where as many students are turned away as are included in the special reading program. However, this does not mean that the students are not receiving some adjustments in their regular reading program.

The considerations which follow are plain and basic. They do not include provision for expanded programs involving field trips, social workers, medical programs, body management, and so on. They were selected on a "first things first" basis. They are the kinds of considerations which must come before expansion and elaboration are undertaken, or what is there to really expand upon. Some thirty considerations, selected from our publication of more than fifty, follow in the areas of: General Considerations; Organization Considerations and Test Data Considerations.

General Considerations. By way of orientation to this area, it is important that the administration and entire teaching staff be informed and involved. Parents also need to be informed and some counseling made available to them.

1. First priority for the selection of students should be based upon evidence of higher potential than achievement. Such evidence should be from test data, teacher recommendations, and the student's own desire to be helped.
2. Students who are not considered to be remedial, but who are slower and not believed to be reading as well as should be expected for their ages and abilities, should be included in a reading improvement program under a second priority in selection.
3. The reading improvement program should be concerned with the entire Language Arts incorporating listening, speaking, writing, and reading.

4. The earlier special help is given the better. Students who need this help are identifiable by second grade.
5. Expectations should be different for silent reading, oral reading for diagnostic purposes, and oral reading for an audience. Characteristically these students hold the concept that reading is smooth, has speed; and is with expression. Of course they have not been able to produce this ideal reading for an audience and in trying to do so revert to a degenerated form of excessive guessing.
6. Instruction should be provided on the level at which the student is achieving without regard to his grade placement; however, the range in chronological age should not exceed three years.
7. The following three major types of groups should be considered:
   a. Power — sheer over-all reading power is the first consideration in grouping. There will be many specific differences within these power groups.
   b. Specific — temporary, flexible skills groups for special help with specific area.
   c. Activity — temporary interest groups which may cut across lines in the previous two groups.
8. Almost all students should continue in such a program for at least one year; most will stay for two or three years, and some will need such special help throughout their education.
9. The materials used at the appropriate level should be new to the student and of the high-interest, low-readability type. This necessitates coordination with the regular reading program and between elementary and secondary schools. There should be, in addition to instructional story and skills materials, materials for free and independent reading. This will help in developing not only students who **can** read but **do** read.
10. Students should meet at least eighty to ninety percent success in order for their program to be appropriate. Nothing succeeds like success.
11. A variety of approaches must be used expecting some to be more effective for one student than another.
12. Classes should not be scheduled so that they will deprive the student of an activity which he considers to be desirable.

Organizational considerations. Organizational procedures do not insure success of a program, but they can either help or hinder the program. The most important aspect is what is done within the organizational framework, and this makes the teacher the most important factor.

1. The reading specialist should have time during the school day for follow-up, diagnostic evaluation, conferring, planning, and services to regular classroom teachers.
    a. Two-thirds time with students and one-third time open.
    b. One-half time with students and one-half time open when more services are given to classroom teachers.
2. Small group work is recommended. Such work is at least as effective as individual work. Rarely is individual scheduling recommended.
3. While the size of a group scheduled at one time will vary, it should vary from two to twelve.
4. The more severe the reading problems, the smaller the group should be.
5. While daily classes are optimum, students should attend at least three times a week.
6. While the length of classes will vary, elementary programs should be approximately thirty minutes in length and secondary programs according to the length of a regular class period.
7. The total number of students for one teacher in such a program should be from forty to sixty.
8. An elementary reading specialist should not work with more than eight scheduled groups, and a secondary reading specialist should not work with more than five or six scheduled groups for a six or eight period school day.

Test data considerations. If test data are to be useful and not merely confusing and bothersome, some understanding and interpretation is necessary.

1. Students with severe reading problems, as a group, score from one level to more than one year higher on a group reading test than instructional level needed. Since these scores are considered to be at frustration level, materials should be used which are at least one year below the group reading achievement scores. It is better to begin too low and move forward than to begin too high and move backward.
2. The level of the group reading achievement test given should be adjusted downward according to a general estimate of the group's reading achievement and not according to the student's grade placement. That is, a group of seventh, eighth, and ninth grade students with severe reading problems should be given the intermediate level reading achievement test.
3. Group reading achievement test data are sufficient for initial power grouping. Then specific skills groups are formed within these power groups.

4. Students with severe reading problems, as a group, score fifteen IQ points higher on an individual intelligence test over a group test.
5. While the group intelligence test is not a good estimate of these students' innate ability, it is a good estimate of present functioning ability.
6. More consideration should be given to the difference, if any, between an individual's reading achievement and his reading expectancy based upon his own age and ability than the difference between his reading achievement and his grade placement.
7. The three major ways of estimating an individual's expectancy are:
   a. Manual Computation—using the formula $\frac{IQ \times CA}{100} = MA$ and converting the MA directly to grade placement, or a 5.0 constant can be subtracted from the MA.
   b. Mental Age Grade Placement (MAGP) — using the MAGP tables published by the California Testing Bureau.
   c. Anticipated Achievement Grade Placement (AAGP) — using the AAGP tables published by the California Testing Bureau
8. Data from the administration of a Bender, by a psychologist, are helpful in determining visual-motor difficulties.
9. Though visual and auditory difficulties are usually identified through our regular programs, such examinations should be requested again when any difficulties are suspected.
10. Teacher evaluations are important to overall evaluations. They are usually expressed in qualitative and not quantitative terms which describe changes in: conduct, attendance, classroom teacher reactions, library usage and free reading, report card grades, attention span, ability to work independently and in a group, confidence, hyperactivity, and attitude.

Conclusion

If most of the above mentioned considerations seem applicable to teaching almost any child in any reading program, this is as it should be. As Dr. Robert Karlin has stated numerous times, the difference in such reading programs are in degree not in kind. Dr. Walter Barbe's term "personalized" is very pertinent here. There is a great need to make teaching more personal; this has been feared in the past. Our behavioral psychologists, such as Dr. Rudolf Dreikurs, Dr. Herbert Quay, and Dr. Tom Stephens, state that the way behavior is treated is the basis for its occurrence. If we can de-emphasize speed, perfection, negativism, and punishment and build upon success, possibly we can help these children in need.

With recent emphasis being given to reading improvement programs and students with reading difficulties the question arises, are children today reading as well as their parents and grandparents did? Actually our comparative research points out that today's students are reading at least as well as their parents and grandparents did, and most studies report an increase of six months to a year at varying grade levels. This is even more significant when it is realized that now there is a more orderly progression through the elementary school, attendance requirements are stricter, and the holding power of the high school has increased. Better diagnosis and treatment of reading difficulties have resulted in improvement.

The kind of involvement desired is exemplified in this closing story. A chicken and a pig were hungry traveling companions who had agreed that, upon reaching the next town, they would eat before going on. Upon entering the town there was a sign in the only restaurant which advertised a breakfast of ham and eggs. The chicken was obviously puzzled when the pig declined to eat. So by way of explanation of the pig said that for the chicken it was a contribution, but for him it was total commitment. Most of our educators are making contributions, can they become totally committed?

A NEW LOOK AT VOCABULARY RESEARCH

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This is a brief report on a recently concluded study sponsored by the National Council of Teachers of English and largely financed by a U.S. Office of Education grant.[1] The purpose of the study was to determine, from an examination of reports of research and educational literature, what the teaching profession actually knows about the teaching of vocabulary. In this context "knows" means knowledge that is substantiated by defensible research evidence.

The study was guided by a committee appointed by the National Council of Teachers of English[2] and the direct investigation of studies was done by three faculty members of Sacramento State College.[3] In addition to myself these three included one whose principal interest is statistics and another whose principal interest is linguistics. In the initial searching for studies, the committee and the principal investigators were aided by several dozen faculty on almost as many campuses. These faculty did some preliminary screening as well as suggesting studies for detailed examination.

The first effort in the study led to the identifying of 565 reports or articles that appeared to have relationship to the objective. From this first step abstracts, journal articles, or summaries and reviews of these studies were examined. This process resulted in the principal investigators securing 80 for direct examination.

The committee took as its principal assignment a literal interpretation of the title given the study: "The State of the Knowledge About the Teaching of Vocabulary." Therefore such peripheral areas as the acquisition of vocabulary, learning or teaching a foreign language vocabulary, and psychological factors affecting vocabulary learning were not dealt with. We did not, however, limit the examination of vocabulary teaching to a particular educational level or to its teaching in a particular subject area of the curriculum.

Each of the selected studies was carefully examined by the principal investigators. We particularly sought to judge the soundness of the research design and its implementation and the extent to which language was satisfactorily treated in terms of our present knowledge of it.

In the research design and implementation aspect, attention was given to the accuracy of the statement of the hypotheses in relation to what was actually done; to the carefulness with which terms were defined and how they were later used; to the delimiting and isolating of variables; to the reliability and validity of the instruments used to measure learning resulting from the teaching; to the suitability of the population and sample; to the appropriateness of other factors, such as the defensiveness of procedures and the relationship of the time devoted to the study of its objective; to the applicability of the procedures used in analyzing the data; and to the manner of reporting the results and conclusions, and the relationship of these to the stated intent of the study.

From a linguistic standpoint attention was given to the manner in which vocabulary was defined—or if it was; to whether or not "word" was defined, and the relationship of the definition, if it was defined, to the words taught; to knowledge of present-day grammar and semantics as shown in the selection of words, phrases, and larger contexts to be taught or otherwise included in the study; and to the application of this linguistic knowledge in the teaching procedure and materials.

In our naivete we felt that there was surely some best way to teach vocabulary; that while it was undoubtedly known by especially informed persons, it was not well enough known by teachers in general; and that it was our task to root it out for all to know and use.

This simply is not the case.

The studies investigated show that vocabulary can be taught, that some teaching effort causes students to learn vocabulary more successfully than does no teaching effort, that any attention to vocabulary development is better than none. We did not find, however, that a "direct" method is better than an "indirect" one, that teaching words in isolation is better than teaching them in context, that an inductive approach is better than a deductive one. That is, the studies did not show that these or any other of the possible dichotomies in pedagogical procedures appear to have been resolved as a consequence of the design, execution, and reporting of the studies examined.

Not everything found, however, was of this negative nature. For instance, there does appear to be sound evidence that the widely-held notion that having students read widely is not likely to be successful unless a planned vocabulary teaching effort is related to it. In addition, the studies examined do provide clues to effective ways for teaching vocabulary and for more productive research. There is a suggestion that comparisons of methods may not be profitable because of the possibility that the skills needed for learning by different methods may be so lacking in similarity that they are not comparable. There appears to be come indication, also that the appropriateness of a particular teaching procedure may vary with the age of the student and the purpose for which the vocabulary is taught.

Perhaps the most surprising finding was the many faults noted in the research and in the ways it was reported. Few studies were very good and many were quite poor. Deficiencies in some studies may be attributed to lack of design and linguistic knowledge available to the researcher at the time of their execution. However, there were not many that could be excused on this count.

A principal flaw in most of the studies examined as far as our investigation was concerned, was the lack of specificity as to the part a particular method or procedure played in the study. Even procedures used experimentally were not well defined and there was a great deal of reference to such terms as "traditional methods" and "most commonly used techniques" usually without clear definitions of these. In addition, even with the procedures defined, there was a general disregard of the reinforcement or retardation effects of other language activities.

There were other design and implication deficiencies, noted in the studies, though of course not all were present in a single study. Some of these were the following:

1. In the area of sample selection several defects were noted. For instance, the procedure of matching a part of a class with the same number of students in another class, with the extreme scorers in the groups being dropped, seems a questionable practice. In most of the studies which followed this procedure no reference was made to the characteristics or the size of the total group. Thus the element of interaction or stimulation produced by highly intelligent children or the possible depressant effect of several pupils with particularly low intelligence does not show up in such comparisons.

2. In consideration of the length of time given to the special treatment in an experimental study, several shortcomings were evident. Many experiments extended no longer than six weeks; some of them ran for only six or ten days. In such short periods of time the Hawthorne effect, the initial curiosity which often accomplishes a new approach, and the challenge to "beat the game" may all contribute to an increased motivation on the part of the individuals in a group.

3. In the area of measuring results there were many studies in which the measuring instrument favored one group over the other. In other instances the sensory medium used for testing possibly influenced the results, parallel forms of tests were not used for pretesting and post-testing, and some studies used no pretests or accounted for this lack by the research design.

4. In the reporting of the research a wide range of practices was found. In some there seemed to be little or no relationship between the original hypothesis and the reported conclusions. In other reports it was extremely difficult to identify the hypothesis of the study. In still others, some data were not dealt with in the conclusion, even though they appeared to have been important. In general, it might be added that too many reports simply did not include enough information as to what actually happened in the study for a reader to make an adequate analysis.

There were also a number of weaknesses of a linguistic nature noted in the studies. These included the following:

1. There was a failure to differentiate between inflectional suffixes and derivational ones. That is, suffixes showing a plural form, the tenses and partial form of verbs, and the comparative forms of adjectives and those suffixes which change an adjective to a noun, and so forth, were treated alike in teaching and testing.

2. Too little distinction was made among the various types of compound words. For example, a compound such as **blackbird** (adjective plus noun) and one such as **dropout** (verb plus adverbial) might be treated in a study in exactly the same manner

3. There was a general failure to differentiate between "living" affixes and purely etymological or historical ones. For example, the prefix **ab-** as an **absolute** is not of the same value as the **pre-** in **pretest.**

4. There was a frequent oversight of important dialectal differences. In fact, there was the general assumption that all regions of the country are likely to use the Thorndike-Lorge words with equal frequency, for the same purposes, and with similar effects.

5. Insufficient attention was paid to the explorations which have been made of language acquisition. For exemple, exploratory studies have shown that at least for preschoolers and first-graders not all syntactical or morphological patterns have become generative. That is, among other things, very young children apparently cannot generally add the [əz] mark for the noun plural or possessive and the third person singular verb with accuracy. Mention should be made also of our feeling that the experimental materials suffered

from a great deal of dullness. While the study of words and their structure, use, and etymologies is not inherently dull, the mechanistic treatment given these matters in many of the studies would go far to make it so. The fault may lie primarily in a failure of the investigator to determine exactly what place the proposed program would occupy in the general language arts program. That is, there appeared to be a failure to determine the exact purpose for having the children master the particular vocabulary. If the goal of a study was simply to have children be able to perform well on a vocabulary test, then perhaps little fault could be found. However, if the goal was to aid in the development of minimal skill in reading and writing, of which the learning of new words would certainly be a part, then the experimental methods of most studies seem doomed to failure, or at least give no signs that progress is being made, since the testing devices are not clearly designed to reveal such achievement.

As I have indicated, this investigation was disappointing to us. We had hoped to find definite evidence that one or more specific teaching procedures should be used in teaching vocabulary and to be able to report this evidence clearly and positively. It is depressing to report that our investigative effort shows that the many studies have resulted in so little knowledge. On the other hand, the profession does learn from finding out what it doesn't know. Therefore, our report concludes with recommendations regarding future vocabulary teaching research and a listing of questions that are subject to research effort in arriving at answers to them. I will not list those questions here but I do want to mention some of the recommendations. Some, of course, have been suggested by the criticisms I have already made of the studies we examined. In addition, our recommendations include the following:

1. Studies should specify in what context the methods they explore could be used.

2. Studies should detail the kinds of language activities the pupils were engaged in at the time of the experiment.

3. The fruits of modern linguistic research must be more effectively incorporated into studies. There are facts of language construction and of semantics that should not be ignored by researchers.

4. Researchers should look more closely at the techniques of foreign language teachers and teachers of English as a second language in planning studies.

5. Consideration should be given to studying the effectiveness of certain techniques for students at different age levels.

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3. Walter T. Petty, Professor of Education (now at the State University of New York at Buffalo); Curtis P. Herold, Associate Professor of English; and Earline Stoll, Assistant Professor of Education (now at UCLA).

RESEARCH AND BEGINNING READING: SOME REFLECTIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

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At the present time the United States government is engaged in an undeclared war in Southeast Asia. As a result of this conflict we have heard from numerous presidential and non-presidential aspirants, all of whom claim they are in agreement regarding goals, but differ in the means to accomplish their objectives. I make this point because it bears a striking parallel to the situation in reading today. Each of us, whether acknowledged reading specialist or not, is convinced that children should be provided with an appropriate educational program which will allow all of them to achieve at their expectancy level. But the prescribed ways to attain this goal are so varied that it seems impossible to bring either side to the negotiation table. As a consequence, the route to success is too often disrupted by detours and dead end streets, whereas the highways, both major and subsidiary, are marred by potholes.

And just as we encounter the hawk and the dove in the Viet Nam debate, so, too, in reading we have those who would escalate and those who would deescalate components of reading instruction. Perhaps no better example of this divergence of opinion can be found than that which relates to the time when children should be inducted into the reading act. On one hand we have the conviction endorsed by Doman that:

> The best time to teach your child to read with little or no trouble is when he is about two years old. Beyond two years, the teaching of reading gets harder every year . . . If you are willing to go to a little trouble, you can begin when your baby is 18 months old or — if you are very clever — as early as 10 months.[1]

On the other hand, there are those who support the theory that the introduction of reading should be delayed until the child is sufficiently mature, physically, mentally, and emotionally, to undertake academic offerings. Translated into chronological age, this maturity most frequently occurs when the child is six or seven years old, although there are instances too painful to recount where this maturation process has not taken effect until much later, if at all.

Avoiding the extremes of this nurture versus nature confrontation, the storm center of the controversy has recently centered on the kindergarten and the curriculum that should be provided for the five-year-old. Here the question seem to be: Should formal reading programs be provided at this level? The question posed presumes, of course, that today's five-year-olds can learn to read.

The research in this area, though limited and far from conclusive, seems to indicate that some, although by no means all, five-year-olds can. Durkin's recent book, **Children Who Read Early,**[2] reveals that approximately one per cent of the children in her Oakland study and three per cent of her subjects in the New York area did learn to read before coming to school. O. K. Moore, using the electric typewriter, along with other elaborate hardware, and the Denver public schools, using the McKee-Harrison materials, also concluded that some children in the three, four and five year old range could be taught to read. Earlier studies by Davidson[3] in this country and Taylor[4] in Scotland also support this thesis.

This research implies, then, that the curriculum offered in most kindergartens today, when modelled on the kindergarten of yesterday, is not sufficient to meet the needs of all children. This contention, however, runs contrary to the thinking of many who continue to maintain that the program designed for the child thirty-five years ago "still seems appropriate today."[5]

In my own opinion this latter observation appears somewhat naive, especially when we consider the vastly different external stimuli of the five-year-old in 1967 with those of 1925; increased opportunities for travel, the influence of radio and television, the profusion of present day books, magazines, and educational toys, as well as the establishment of nursery schools, pre-nursery schools, and in some instances, pre-pre--nursery schools. All of these factors would appear to influence the maturation process and subsequently the time when children could best profit from reading instruction.

Despite these societal changes the second Harvard report[6] indicated that twenty-three per cent of the school systems which provide kindergartens in this country do not have a planned sequential approach in reading instruction for any children. In a follow-up study comparing reported practices with practices recommended by a selected group of acknowledged leaders in the field of reading, it was found that a slight majority of these specialists, fifty-eight per cent, recommended formal reading instruction in kindergartens.[7] Nevertheless, this group did, with few exceptions, restrict their endorsement to include only those children who indicated a readiness to read or those who were already reading when they came to school.

And so, while it is evident that group thinking related to the problem of introducing reading to the five-year-old is frequently polarized at the yes-no ends of the continuum, the available research indicates that reconsideration of the matter would be desirable in an effort to reach a **rapprochment** between the two groups.

Results of the research currently being conducted at the University of Illinois in studies being investigated by Bereiter and Durkin, which are focused on the questions concerning the four and five-year-old and how they live and learn in present day surroundings, should be read carefully by teachers and administrators alike. For the implementation of these and other research findings will come to nothing if teachers in subsequent grades are unaware of the achievements of kindergarten children and, indeed, treat them as if they had made none. This situation has already become a reality in the case of Project Head Start, where the advantages of an earlier start and an enrichment program were nullified when subsequent programs were not adjusted to accommodate the program and needs of Head Start graduates.

Similarly, if administrators continue to place as much reliance on reading readiness tests as they have in the past, it is doubtful whether acceptable pupil placement can take effect. As to the quality of these tests Carroll[8] wrote:

> Mr. Conant is very much interested in the problem of reading, so I have tried to find out about reading tests, beginning with reading readiness tests . . . There wasn't a single reading readiness test which would pass muster on most of the customary criteria, such as adequate validity, reliability, and standardization.

Taking one widely used test as an example, Carroll continued:[9]

> One of the things this test is supposed to tell you is how much one should delay the start of formal reading instruction in reading . . . This is an interesting claim, and I tried to see if we have any research evidence to justify it. A diligent search failed to disclose, in the test manual or in any writings of the test's authors, any research evidence which would justify the delay of reading work on the basis of scores on the test. The only kind of validity offered was the correlation between test scores and reading success at the end of the first year. Some of these correlations were quite good, .60 or thereabouts. But that still does not justify using the test as a basis for delaying children in reading work. I would challenge you to find anything in the literature that relates to this problem.

On a more encouraging note, one can find hope in the preliminary study being conducted in New York by DeHirsch and her colleagues. In a recently published book entitled **Predicting Reading Failure,**[10] these researchers claim to have identified a number of tests which, when administered to kindergarten children, will give a prediction of the child's ability to read in the second grade.

This study should provide us with a rationale for providing special help for those children whose predictive index indicates a lack of subsequent success. Presently, most children's reading problems are neither identified nor provided for until the intermediate grades, by which time the difficulties encountered by most children are so complex that only an experienced clinician can be of much help.

Leaving the kindergarten scene, those of us who are taxpayers and readers should be aware of the government sponsored research program to determine the effectiveness of the first grade reading programs.[11] For those who expected an answer to the question, which method is best, the results must have come as a disappointment, since, as one might have anticipated, the computers at the University of Minnesota, indicated neither a significant fondness nor distaste for any one program utilized in the study.

Trends which emerge as one reads the studies are, however, clearly discernible. One of these is that children who are taught by an approach to beginning reading which facilitates the decoding process tend to do better than do children who use the so-called eclectic approach, commonly associated with basal reading methods. A related finding is that children who use a basal approach which is supplemented by another method (e.g., phonic or linguistic) also achieve better than do children who have been taught exclusively by the basal method. These findings reinforce results of a previous study of beginning reading conducted in Virginia by Bliesmer and Yarborough.[12] Here the researchers compared ten approaches to beginning reading, five of which were labelled synthetic and the other five analytic. Children using the synthetic approaches had significantly higher scores on all phases of the testing program which included word reading, paragraph meaning, vocabulary, spelling, and word study skills than did children using basal or related materials.

Both the government sponsored study and the Virginia study would tend to cast doubt on the effectiveness of basal materials when used **exclusively** at the first grade level. Of course, one must take into consideration that the emphasis on phonic instruction found in most basal texts is concentrated at the second and third grade levels, whereas phonic or linguistic instruction in approaches utilizing an earlier and more systematic process of decoding the printed material is concentrated at the first grade level. That children using the latter approach achieve higher scores on some sub-tests, particularly word recognition, would seem to indicate that certain children can absorb and profit by an earlier introduction to phonic analysis than is currently the case when basal materials are used.

The point made by some, that children provided with this earlier introduction of word attack skills will not maintain the advantage they gained in subsequent grades does not seem to be a plausible excuse for delay. Because, if true, this is a reflection of poor instructional techniques provided these children. The situation closely parallels that of the kindergarten child who arrives in first grade already reading, but, who, nontheless, is expected to complete the traditional six week readiness program and the reading of an infinite number of pre-primers. Clearly the teacher has not capitalized on the advantages of his earlier start in reading and no subsequent gains can be expected.

The fact that children using a synthetic approach also score significantly better on comprehension tests is somewhat more difficult to explain. My own opinion is that in those programs where emphasis on comprehension is minimized in beginning reading situations, this omission is compensated by the teachers, most of whom learned the value of comprehension skills when they were taught to read, and where the importance of these skills were reinforced during their baccalaureate training, both in theory courses and in student teaching programs.

In reporting the findings of these studies one must be cautioned about interpreting the results from a source other than the original. For example, I have mentioned several methods of teaching reading which I have labelled basal, phonic, and linguistic. Yet I have not provided you with a careful description of any of these programs.

In speaking of basal programs, for example, one is conditioned to think in terms of those materials or methods which typically include a basic sight vocabulary of fifty to seventy-five words before phonic analysis is introduced, or those where the vocabulary load is controlled by repeated use of words taken from so-called high service words. These characteristics are true of many basal programs. But two basal programs which figure prominently in the research previously mentioned do not conform to the typical stereotype. The Houghton Mifflin materials, widely used and referred to as basal, introduce children to the names of the consonants and the sounds these letters represent prior to the time children are introduced to a "sight" vocabulary. Indeed, in the Bliesmer study the Houghton Mifflin program is included among the synthetic approaches to reading along with the Singer Structured Reading Series, Economy book phonic materials (sometimes classified as basal), McGraw-Hill programmed instruction, and the Lippincott readers. The Lippincott materials are also referred to as "basal" although they, too, bear little resemblance to other basal approaches. Some differences include the following: (1) these readers begin by introducing children to names of vowels, vowel sounds and consonant sounds; (2) the vocabulary load, which is five times greater than that found in other basals, is controlled with regard to the spelling consistency of the words; and (3) alack, alas, they have banished from their pages one man's family and their little white house in suburbia. These series combines, then, characteristics of materials found more frequently in approaches emphasizing a phonic or a linguistic orientation.

Well formulated "which" and "what" questions relating to other approaches are vitally important because in almost any of them the methods vary considerably. Of the linguistic materials, for example, there is considerable difference if one would take the time to evaluate the readers associated with Fries, with Bloomfield, with Richards and Gibson, with Daniels and Diack, or with Smith.

What I am trying to emphasize here is that in interpreting the research we must be careful to qualify labels attached to one approach or another. What one person may refer to as phonic, another calls linguistic, what one designates as analytic, another refers to as synthetic, and so on down the list. With respect to this point it should be pointed out that teachers and researchers participating in the first grade study differed so in their description of what constituted an approach with the same label, that in some instances there was a wider range of scores where the "same" approach (e. g., language experience) was used than there was when comparisons were made among "different" methods.

Before leaving this area I would like to say one word about the content of beginning reading materials. On the one hand we have those who contend that the literary fare found in the traditional type basal readers is so meager that the reading interests of children will be neither satisfied nor developed. Typical of the fun poked at such materials is the cartoon found in one issue of **The New Yorker** where a moronic looking football player was depicted jumping off the bench and exclaiming to his fellow bench warmers: "Look at Jim. Jim has the ball. Run, Jim, run!"

On the other hand the child using linguistic materials is categorized as one facing the supreme suspense of knowing whether or not Dan can fan Nan.

As to the appropriateness of the content of beginning readers, Chall[13] stated that her findings (to be published under the title **Beginning Reading: The Great Debate**) indicate that interest in content is not a particularly important facor to the beginning reader. Rather, the accomplishment of reading the printed material appears to be more significant to the child.

This observation may hold true for some children, as I am inclined to believe it does, when he is initially inducted into the reading act and when his concept of reading may be associated exclusively with the decoding process. However, to sustain this motivation and produce the mature reader who can comprehend what he has read, and utilize his reading skills in functional settings, it would appear necessary to provide him with reading material which is not only comprehensible but which extends beyond the technical aspects of reading.

As I examine many of the textbooks currently available to children, I do not get the feeling that the young reader is being exposed to the beauty of words, the delight of whimsy or make-believe, the sense of drama, the joy of humor. Perhaps these components of literature are found in the later grades but if so, our text book publishers have underestimated the ability of young children to appreciate subtle humor, the enchantment of poetry, as well as the sense of tragedy and suffering.[14]

Nor can one ignore the extensive work conducted at the University of Indiana and elsewhere in relation to oral patterns of children's language. While most of this research has dealt with intermediate grade children it also has implications for the primary grade program. Essentially the studies conducted by Strickland,[15] Ruddell,[16] and Tatman[17] indicate that the language patterns in basal readers do not correspond with the speaking patterns used by children, and further, that materials which consist of the most frequently used patterns of children's speech were comprehended significantly better than those pasasges which did not correspond to the oral speech patterns of children.

Before I close I would like to say a few words about the caliber of the research presently being undertaken and about some of the variables that influence the results. As I observe much of the research being undertaken in our schools (much of it, incidentally being done under the auspices of Office of Education grants), I have come to the unfortunate conclusion that too much of it is being characterized by inadequate designs, including absence of any controls, by the brevity of the experiment, and by the limited number of participants included in the studies.

A predilection for this kind of investigation has grown out of the "action research" movement and the idea that individuals and groups can be guided to participate in research to discover factss about their own teaching programs. Although admittedly providing less definitive tests of stated hypothesis, action research seeks its justification in the improvement of teachers by involving them in experimental programs. Unfortunately practitioners involved in such activity have not been content with stating their results in terms of a trend or a tendency, but rather in terms of a final or specific outcome. Results of these studies unquestionably influence unwarranted adoption by other communities of reading programs which have not undergone more rigorous or reliable research evaluation.

So much has been said about the Hawthorne effect on reading that I need not dwell on the topic here except to reiterate the point made by Gates that "the tendency of the experimental procedures to win out suggests that in research as well as in daily practice we must be concerned with boredom, and backsliding, and, as in medicine, with the development of immunity."[18] His suggestion that the research must be repeated periodically especially after it is free of the "honeymoon fervor" appears eminently sensible, otherwise the new program of today will become the dull old program of tomorrow ready for easy defeat by another "new" one.

The implication here is quite obvious. Any new program taught with reawakened alertness and drive will probably show up better in an experimental group setting than the old one, taught ineptly or lackadaisically, even if the latter one is better. It behooves us then to make certain that the teacher's characteristics are carefully controlled when new methods or new materials are being evaluated. Unless this is done, the success of one program over the other must be held in doubt.

And just as I am concerned about the quality of teaching when developing a research or evaluating a completed one, so too am I concerned about the characteristics of the learner. Too often in our concern over the question of which method was the better of the two, or the best of the three, no corresponding concern is evidenced about those children on either the winning or losing teams who either succeeded or failed in reading.

The basal program, for example, though much maligned in certain circles apparently is an effective method of teaching some children. But because others fail, there is reason to question exclusive reliance on it for all children. Presumably some children will profit by the type of vocabulary control it provides, with sequence of skills, and content appeal. Yet, others will find these attributes neither suitable nor desirable. The question is, which children will profit and which will not?

Similarly if we examine those programs where children are required, or at least expected, to function independently of the teacher, one might anticipate success by some and failure by others. Some children have not been sufficiently prepared to function successfully in programs that are primarily learner-directed rather than adult-directed. This applies to children who may exhibit such characteristics as social immaturity, negativism, and dependency on adults; hardly the type of child that could be expected to display the necessary independence in the selection of appropriate materials and in subsequent record keeping and self-correcting exercises.

I also doubt a statement made by Dr. Veatch that:[18]

> Children need little incentive to read. They pour over (books). They fight over them. They brag about them. They swap them. There is little need for the teacher to spend any time to develop interest. The interest is already there. It is built in.

I cannot find much evidence to support this extravagant claim. Indeed in some of the schools that I have recently been visiting where Title I projects were underway, some of the children were using books as weapons rather than as tools of instruction: they were fighting **with** them, rather than **over** them. These were children who came from homes where reading by adults or peers is frequently neither undertaken nor cherished. In such instances a program which provides these children with the decision to read or not to read could hardly be expected to succeed.

In relation to what we have been discussing, a study conducted by Grimes and Allinsmith at Harvard confirms the hypothesis that there is a direct relationship between pupil personality, the methods of teaching reading, and achievement. Using "anxiety" and "compulsiveness" as two componnets of pupil personality they concluded from their study that:

> Children measured as high in anxiety and those rated high in compulsivity are shown to benefit particularly from the more highly structured school environment as represented by a formal phonics approach to reading instruction.

The author states further that the compulsive child appears to do well in school whether the setting is structured or unstructured, but that he attains outstanding success in the structured school setting. The children "with high levels of anxiety suffer a substantial disadvantage in the unstructured school setting, while they are able to succeed at least as well as average when taught by a highly structured teaching method."[21]

Thus it behooves us to examine existing reading programs carefully before adoption in an effort to determine which method may produce the best results for which children. In this respect we have not gone beyond the frontier stage of research, but it does not seem unreasonable to expect teachers to develop a greater degree of sensitivity to the needs of individual children.

In conclusion let me say that prolific as it has been, much needs to be done in research areas if we expect to have acceptable answers to such questions as: why are we teaching as we do; what is the value of this particular method, device, or material; under which conditions will children learn to read best?

And as we evaluate the research that is available and await the research which will assuredly be forthcoming, the teaching of reading should not serve as a battleground. In this respect I concur with Paul Woodring's words of advice. "We hope," he wrote,[22]

> that the specialists and critics of many persuasions will climb down from their barricades and quit taking pot shots at each other. If they will read more carefully themselves many of them will discover that they have been misinterpreting what their opponents are trying to say. We hope that they will regain their sense of balance, examine all the evidence more carefully, and quit beclouding the issue with wild charges and extravagant claims.

Should we choose to ignore this advice we will only perpetuate the status quo in reading. Should we choose to follow it, the opportunity for progress may well become a reality rather than a hope.

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FOSTERING CREATIVITY IN READING AND LANGUAGE ARTS AMONG OUR GIFTED

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The study of creativity is fascinating. It is elusive, yet it intrigues the inquiring mind of man. It borders on glimpses of scientific interpretation, yet permits exciting speculation. Scholars tend to recognize the dynamic values in the cultivation of human creativity because of its unique and apparent depth of thought and expression. Advancing civilizations cherish its nature because it becomes a prolific germ for a fruitful and enduring future. One can safely conclude that because of its potent influence upon the happiness of man and upon our nation's virility, it becomes a prime obligation of our schools to identify its existence in the minds and personalities of gifted youth and exert an increasing effort to cultivate its growth and expression.

Not too long ago the author was privileged to observe approximately eight hundred mentally gifted children over a span of five years. He observed them working in both heterogeneous and homogeneous situations. Although not all of the children could be classified as exceptionally creative, their intelligence quotients ranged between 125 and 190 on a Binet. Particular attention was given to the variety and nature of the techniques being used by the teachers in their efforts to develop skills, potentials, and competencies. Perhaps a few of these observations are worthy of consideration as we seek to explore the implications of creativity in reading and the language arts.

Because of varied interests these children tended to be avid readers. Since the gifted required less formal instruction, phonetic help and drill in the fundamentals of reading, their programs were planned on an individual basis. One hundred and thirty-four students reported having read two thousand four hundred and fifteen books within a seven month period. The least number read was four and the largest was seventy-five. Although the average number of books was eighteen, fourteen of the most avid and rapid readers completed seven hundred and fifty-nine, or almost one third of the total number. All types of books and authors were liked by these children who would be classified as fifth, sixth, seventh and eighth graders. A wide range of authors were listed, including such persons as: Alcott, Anderson, de Angeli, Stern, Vance, Shakespeare, Faulkner, Hyerdahl and Tolstoy.

A key commonly used to unlock the secrets and explore the contents of literature was: **It is what I think and how I feel about what I read that is important.** Children shared their reactions in group meetings, discussed the characters, read portions orally to entice others to explore the contents, spoke critically about the plots, role played their interpretations of the characters, kept their records and summarizations on file cards, studied the progression of the plots, made comparisons with other stories they had read, and actively sought explanations concerning the purposes and intentions of the authors. In addition to these approaches they constructed drawings, paintings, panoramic scenes and stage settings, puppets, dolls and stick figures to portray interpretations and role play conversations. Many of these students wrote stories and poems of their own. It was not uncommon to find room libraries of from one hundred to two hundred books. These had been brought in approximately once a month from the stacks of the city and school libraries by student committees acting upon information they had gathered concerning the preferences and needs of the various students.

In one class the teacher and thirty fifth graders gathered in a circle to share their reactions to **Pirate Don Dirk of Dowdee** by Mildred Meigs. A room chairman gave each member a mimeographed copy of the poem. After reading it silently to themselves they selected various words and phrases which they liked. The enthusiasm and loyal cooperative spirit carried them into unusual depths of understanding and emotional reaction. The rhythm was catchy and the lines were full of choice bits. Such lines as **It gossips with the talking trees, floppety plume, zigzaggy scar, slickery slosh,** and **perfectly gorgeous to see** caught the attention and fancy of the children. They read portions of the poem individually, in unison, and as choral readings, as actors in a drama. They vied with each other to get the most feeling out of the lines, and a sense of emotional reaction and musical interpretation. In one place a boy objected to the author's attempt to make a rhythm. He felt that the effort was too forced. Attempts were made to substitute other words with similar meanings, emotional feelings, or beat.

In still another room students were sharing original poems they had created during the week. When the butchering stage was completed they illustrated their productions, typed them, and had them bound as **Our Anthology.** Another group produced a bound volume of their typed book reviews. Each report followed a general outline for the purposes of organization and clarity. In this process they quoted interesting passages, described characters, speculated upon the background of the story and defended some of their answers.

Great care was taken by teachers in developing quetsions that might cause deeper thinking and interpretation. Examples of some of these taken from literature and the content areas included:

(1) Rab said that Mr. Lytle was dishonest. How was this proven?
(2) What is your interpretation of the line, "Everything comes to him who hustles while he waits"?
(3) Locate evidences that indicate changes in Robert's thinking concerning the problems of poor people.
(4) If you had lived at the time of Washington, Hamilton and Jefferson, which political party would you have joined, and why?
(5) Why did Aaron Burr do some of the things he did that seem traitorous to us. Would you have done likewise if you had been plagued with the same troubles? Why, or why not?

Another class was occupied in reading a story which they had enjoyed, locating and sharing portions which they felt were interesting, brave, exciting, unusual, geographic, humorous, curious, poetic, true-to-life, authentic, sympathetic, amusing, unbelievable, factual, historical, amazing, happy, comical, adventurous, sad, breath-taking, mysterious, surprising, and fictional. Others were reading to locate new words, beautiful descriptions, good deeds, word pictures, comparisons, and special characteristics.

Perhaps the most creative experience for these gifted students involved the writing of original stories, poems, poetic prose and musical compositions. These developed in a natural manner from the reading of many good poems and stories that appealed to the children's fancy, such as the little verse by Hilda Conkling which was used in a third grade setting.

I AM

I am willowy boughs
For coolness,
I am goldfinch wings
For darkness,
I am a little grape
Thinking of September,
I am a small violet
Thinking of May.

Using these lines as suggestive, the group had fun pooling all of their own ideas concerning words that seemed to express the senses of hearing, touch, sight, and smell. They covered the blackboard with as many as they could with concern for aptness and sensory response.

whiteness	**softness**	**freshness**
new fallen snow	a silky pussywillow	rain washed air
a billowy cloud	velvety moss	dewy grass
a field of daisies	milkweed fluff	a clean snowdrift

softness	**darkness**	**sharpness**
a soft lullaby	stormy black clouds	roll of thunder
a cooing dove	the sky at nightfall	a blue jay's cry
gentle rain	a gloomy cave	the crash of timber
droning bees	blind at night	breaking the barrier

...Several I AM poems were created by the class working in unison, thinking together. This was followed by pupils working on their own personal creations. Two of these third grade student productions follow.

I AM

I am an October sky
For blueness,
I am autumn leaves
For crispness,
I am a lonely cricket
Searching for shelter,
I am a busy squirrel
Storing my nuts

I AM

I am rain-washed air
For freshness,
I am a cloudless sky
For blueness,
I am a sparkling wave
Thinking of summer,
I am a tiny leaf bud
Thinking of spring

The growth in capacity to express creatively did not end with the first production. A sense of rhythm, rhyme, swing, and meter had just begun. The soothing, satisfying sounds were pleasing and intriguing. There was no one to make fun of their accomplishments and immature efforts: only praise for good productions. A more advanced series of poems developed. This came about quite by accident when one alert child volunteered that he could see comparisons that he could put together so that they would rhyme. He showed the others and Lloyd's first poem was born completely independent as a production. Others tried, found it easy, and experimented with one syllable words that rhymed: cake-lake, tune-June, light-sight, tree-see and many others. Along with these amateur productions, the class read many poems by outstanding children's authors. They were read orally, for poems were meant to be shared that way.

One of the last attempts to use pattern for understanding was experienced when the teacher read **The Rice Pudding** by A. A. Milne. They discovered that the author had made it amusing by poking fun at some childish behavior. They used the idea. To be creative was not to be wholly different. It was the expression of discovered truths in new ways. Basically established, poetry would probably always be appreciated by these children who had found satisfaction in bringing up from deep within their inner selves feelings, emotions, and satisfying thoughts.

MY STRANGE CAT

What is the matter with
Tiny Tim?
He's climbed up there to the
highest limb.
I've called and coaxed and
pleaded with him,
What's the matter with
Tiny Tim?
What is the matter with
Timothy?
He looks as if he's angry
at me,
I'm sure he has no reason
to be.
What's the matter with
Timothy?

One day while visiting a fifth grade in Indianapolis, the writer observed a little girl writing an original poem. She wrote it, tore it apart, polished it and placed it on her desk before turning to read more of Tolstoy's **Of War And Peace.** He asked to see the production and was so impressed with its depth and clarity that he asked for a copy. Eager to share she went to one of the two typewriters and copied it. Since that day Jo Ellen Beamer has gone on to graduate as a honor student from her high school.

LADY NIGHT

A lovely lady rules the night;
Her face is fair and clear as the moon;
Her eyes are like the brightest stars,
And she sings a lullaby tune.

Her hair comes streaming down her back,
As dark as a blackbird's wings;
The veil she wears is the Milky Way,
And the stars are diamond strings.

Children who are too young to enter school will want to read if they discover that their parents spend a goodly portion of their leisure time reading, if they tend to share good stories for wee tots in an exciting manner, and if they praise their offspring when they recognize common words in their environment. Kindergarten and first grade children need to hear many stories from children's literature to whet their appetites and tickle their curiosities. If this readiness can move beyond the picture study stage with equal satisfaction they will want to tell their own stories, hear their own voices on tape recorders, and recognize what they have said in print. Yes, creativity is the heart of the language arts.

NEEDED: TEACHERS TO VITALIZE READING!

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Countless articles and research reports appear in professional journals and popular magazines every month concerning such topics as early reading for children, phonics with more linguistics, new basal reading programs, and new organizational plans to facilitate the teaching of reading. Large private foundations and the United States Government are spending vast sums of money to improve reading instruction. School districts are purchasing, in ever growing numbers, new textbooks, workbooks with accompanying manuals, controlled readers, language master machines, tachistoscopes, and other mechanical and electronic devices. Reading is on the minds of a great many people.

Comparatively few articles, however, deal with the teacher of reading and with his interactions with children in the classroom. Amidst these new and shiny materials sit our youngsters. Some are avid readers. Others are not. Some are eager and enthusiastic about reading. Others are not. Some express their thoughts and feelings with ease. Others say nothing. But one thing is certain. These children have feelings, and feelings affect learning.

Reports of recent reading research show that the most important single factor contributing to the success of new materials, methods, or plans is the teacher. This is not surprising. The teacher interacts with youngsters throughout the day, and children are sensitive to the qualities their teacher possesses.

New materials, new organizational plans, and new equipment are worthless without teachers who are well prepared, love reading and can communicate this love to their pupils. With frightening frequency however, many a child's enthusiasm for reading, his eagerness to learn, and his curiosity about books are dampened in the very classrooms in which new materials and media are in daily use. Many youngsters are faced with empty and bewildering drills, the relevance of which appears abundantly clear to the teacher, but is totally invisible to the child.

Books and reading should open doors to the world and indeed to the universe for children. New vistas should appear on their horizons as they read books written to inform, to explain, to introduce exciting new friends, to whisk across oceans, deserts, and mountains, to zoom into space, to uplift spirits, and to deepen understandings. There is nothing dull about books, but many youngsters are not reading. Librarians can attest to this.

Student teachers and those with whom they work in the classroom can hardly be blamed for this lack of enthusiasm. More often than not these people are presenting the kinds of reading lessons and distributing the types of drills which are discussed in many college textbooks and reading methodology courses.

A cursory examination of a number of textbooks on reading instruction reveals a major focus upon such mechanical and skill aspects of reading as readiness, word recognition, readability of materials, reading rate, comprehension, diagnosis, reading in the content areas, and remedial reading. Creative reading, where the reader comprehends and reflects upon the reading matter, is not given equal attention, and in many instancess is ignored completely.

As a result, many student teachers who have completed methods courses in reading show skill in varying degrees in lesson planning, developing drills and exercises, using workbooks, and leading discussions of the question and answer type. They appear knowledgeable in new methods of reading instruction and more often than not can hold their own in discussing major reading controversies. Their youngsters however, are not living, breathing, and feeling in the worlds which books can open to them. Many are deprived of the gentle moods, the form, the striking designs, the deep meaning, and the infinite beauty in both the illustrations and the content of the realistic and fanciful treasures found in books. Indeed, one seven year old boy turned around in his seat during a reading lesson and commented to this writer, "Isn't this devastating!" Devastating it was. This reading session consisted of three pages of matching words, completing sentences, and coloring objects beginning with the letter 'f'.

A student teacher once remarked that the first few days of teaching left her completely drained, bewildered, and frustrated. She thought the children would love reading as she did. She wanted to find out from them which books in the room were the best ones. She had hoped to talk about these books, to laugh and smile with the youngsters over amusing incidents, and to share their moments of awe over words put together in truth and beauty to describe with sensitivity a scene, a feeling, or a particular incident in the story. Her children wanted none of this. They knew what reading was — a word study, often a dictionary exercise, silent reading, filling in blanks and answering questions, and oral reading, often the same story they read the day before.

Creative and imaginative teachers, both at the college and public school levels, are needed to make reading come alive for children; teachers who can free themselves of the bonds which standardize textbooks, pitched to a scientifically predetermined average, impose.

It is a paradox that so many student and first year teachers use workbooks and the accompanying manuals for a sense of direction. These people have just completed courses in the teaching of reading, and have received supervised practice in student teaching of reading! Their future as teachers who will lead children into the love of reading looks less than promising when they are molded in such a pattern so early in their careers.

This discussion is not suggesting the elimination of mechanics and skills of reading, but rather suggests a redirection toward preparing teachers who can spark children's enthusiasm for books; who will encourage children to talk; who will listen as their ideas begin to pour out freely; who will become the scribe of youngsters and record their words and sentences; who will help children step inside a story and identify personally with the characters; who will lead youngsters to develop a love for words, and above all, who will inspire them to grow into avid, thinking readers.

In a college reading methodology course the problems of utilizing children's own language and presenting good literature to youngsters were presented to a group of students who were about to go into public school classrooms for participation experiences. Rather than suggesting they find security in the safety of vocabulary drills and exercises found in teachers' manuals, they were asked to find a book that would appeal to youngsters, read the book, and develop questions that would incite children to talk! Four examples of many successful ventures follow:

One student read aloud to a group of eight children a portion of Wanda Gag's **Millions of Cats.** It wasn't long until each time she came to the passage below that the youngsters joined in with delight.

Cats here, cats there,
Cats and kittens everywhere,
Hundreds of cats,
Thousands of cats,
Millions and billions and trillions of cats.

The story was continued until the old man came home and the old woman cried out, "What are you doing? I asked for one little cat, and what do I see?

Cats here, cats there,
Cats and kittens everywhere,
Hundreds of cats,
Thousands of cats,
Millions and billions and trillions of cats.
What shall we do?

The youngsters were asked, "What would you do with hundreds of cats, thousands of cats, millions and billions and trillions of cats?" This story was developed from the children's comments:

Billy would take them all back, but keep one.
Karen would keep two black and white kittens.
Margie would keep a mother cat and her babies.
Bruce would sell them all and buy a dog.
Scott would take one home for a playmate for his own cat.
"I don't think George would like it," said Betsy. "George is my cat."
"Touser, my dog, wouldn't like all those cats either," said Harold.
Ann would give them all away to friends and grandmother.

The children made illustrations to decorate the story they had written. The words were learned with little difficulty. Every child could read the words, hundreds, thousands, millions, billions, and trillions. These words had real meaning and excitement!

Margaret Wise Brown's **The Quiet Noisy Book,** was used by another student. This is the story about Muffin, a little dog who was awakened by a noise, a very quiet noise; a noise as quiet as someone eating currant jelly, as quiet as a fish breathing, as quiet as a grasshopper sneezing.

"What was this noise?" a group of eleven youngsters was asked. Their comments were so numerous and the excitement so high that the children came to school the following day bursting with new ideas about what the noise might be. Incidentally, a student working with older children used this book to introduce the use of similes. These books have no grade level.

A third student, dissatisfied at the moment with the appropriateness of such books for her group, initiated a talking time with children about after school fun. She gained deep insight into the backgrounds of these youngsters as they told about helping older brothers shine shoes and sell papers. "The Shoeshine Story" which follows delighted these pupils, and for days they came to the student teacher to show her words they knew. One little boy of six commented, "My God! I can read!" Another said, "Gee, this is fun!"

My brother shines shoes at the Lincoln. He charges 45 cents. I got to help. One time we was in the Lincoln and a man gave us a dollar for his shine. I gave Mom 25 cents. Sometimes the men don't like a shine and they get mad.

The following story was written by Steve during a private conference with the student teacher. Though the content is tragic, this nine year old, for the first time in his school life, began to understand that words to be read are simply those words he says. The story is given in its original form.

> Sunday night my mother went out. She came back with my grandfather and two other men. My grandfather slapped the man named Leo. He came from Porto Reko and he don't talk good. He likes my sister and wants to go with her. She hates him. Then they fighted some more out in the back yerd. They thru rakes and hoses. Then Leo puled a gun out of his shirt. I saw bright sparks and herd a big loud noise. My grandfather fell down on the ground. He said help Leo shoot me. He tooked turrible. He couldn't move at all. We called the cops to come. Then an ambulanse took him to Mercy hospital. If he lives he'll be paralis and if he dies he'll be dead.

Reading periods in which children are reading and enjoying books not only can extend vocabulary and appreciation of words, but also can deepen a child's understanding, heighten his awareness, and develop his sensitivity toward people, events, and his surroundings. Perceptive and penetrating discussions about books can lead youngsters to step inside a story, to live, breathe, and feel with the characters as the plot unfolds.

A group of sixth graders was discussing with a college student books read by each member. To the question, "How did the book make you feel?" a child responded, "My heartbeat doubled as I went with Miguel into the house to see if the letter had disappeared, and I almost cried when he prayed to San Ysidro." This boy had identified with Joseph Krumgold's **Miguel.** Did he need a series of questions to answer or a number of events to put in proper sequence in order to check his comprehension? I doubt it.

What are these youngsters doing for seat work? They're so busy reading; collecting and putting words together; writing letters to authors; writing their own stories, poems and reports; keeping diaries; and engaging in other such activities that the time is not adequate to pursue them all.

If reading truly is to come alive for youngsters, college methodology courses must open the world of books to future teachers and teachers in service. These people must be free to be creative and imaginative in sparking children's enthusiasm and love for reading. For what higher goal could we ask than for children to grow into avid, critical readers, who through reading, widen their horizons, develop new attitudes, find solutions to their problems and discover a significant means of personal pleasure and satisfaction?

IMPROVING THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF READING PERSONNEL

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NDEA and more particularly ESEA support have revealed that the teaching profession does not have enough good teachers of reading. Traditionally, there has always been a shortage of better-than-average teachers in all areas. The alarming discovery is that now we are finding a shortage of even "average" teachers of reading. Since "First R" may still be supposed to be somewhat basic to the education of boys and girls, we are faced with what may well be the Achilles' heel of the entire teaching profession.

Some years ago travelers approaching one of the larger cities of our state could observe, fastened on a decrepit red barn, a crudely lettered sign bearing the words "Remedial Reading." A hand on that sign pointed up a dirt road. The sign has disappeared along with the barn that supported it, but the road remains. It is still unimproved.

The thesis presented here is that college teachers of reading know what should be done to improve reading instruction and the training of reading teachers. For too long we have sighed at regulations, or the lack of them, both within our colleges and in our states. Reading instruction has faltered largely because of the reticence of college professors to express themselves. This is truly an alarming and a rather peculiar one. On other subjects, from academic freedom to Zerox, professors are, to say the least, semi-articulate. Should we not cease making excuses and replace what in the past has been a rather negative attitude with something more positive?

If we admit that we know how to do better and if we are cognizant of the need to clean the Augean stables, could we agree on a concerted effort in the following areas:

1. Pre-service training of elementary teachers.
2. Pre-service training of secondary teachers.
3. Establishment of standards for reading personnel to aid in:
   a. "On-going" formal and informal in-service training
   b. Clinical work with disabled readers.
4. In-service training of school faculties.
5. Involvement of elementary school administrators.

Admittedly much more remains to be done but a beginning has to be made somewhere. While we may not be in complete accord on details in the above areas, we should be able to reach substantial agreement.

Pre-Service Training of Elementary Teachers

Probably the least controversial area of those mentioned is the *training of elementary teachers.* Dr. Austin has made abundantly clear the situation that now exists. Some teachers in training may avoid courses containing instruction in reading completely; some take a course in which reading is a part of a larger course in Language Arts; others take a discrete course in reading but the instructor is likely to emphasize beginning reading instruction with the end result that intermediate grade and early secondary teachers are poorly served by such courses.

Operation Head Start has revealed a woeful lack of training in child psychology and special education. Primary-grade teachers have been concerned with reading readiness for children of slow maturation and of impoverished backgrounds who are not ready for reading at the beginning of grade one. They need also to concern themselves with children who have already learned to read before grade one.

Goals in the pre-service training of elementary teachers might be: 1) a discrete course in the teaching of reading for all elementary teachers, 2) increased emphasis on reading instruction as part of student teaching, 3) broadening the scope of child psychology and special education to include the pre-school child. As these are accomplished we might also consider separate courses for primary and intermediate grade teachers of reading; and, for those states requiring a fifth year of preparation for permanent certification for elementary or K-9 teachers, we might require a graduate-level course in reading.

Pre-Service Training of Secondary Teachers

The concept of reading being developmental and that skills taught in elementary school need refinement and application at secondary levels calls for changes in the pre-service training of secondary teachers. Language Arts teachers are assumed to teach an orderly sequence of reading skills. Application of these skills is often best accomplished in the classrooms of teachers of business subjects, home economics, mathematics, science, shop courses, and social studies.

Several states now have "work in reading" mandated for English Language Arts teachers. Sometimes this is in the form of a separate course, but more often it is included in English methods. If the English teacher is expected to work with content teachers in a Developmental Reading program and if all teachers are to be responsible for the application of reading and study skills in their subjects, a course in reading would appear to be a reasonable request. A goal here, then, could well be that everyone preparing to become a teacher should take a course in reading as part of his undergraduate professional training.

Standards For Reading Personnel

The International Reading Association, for the last ten years, has had committees working on minimum standards for reading teachers. Today approximately one-fifth of the states provide some form of certification. Why are so many states slow to recognize the necessity of establishing professional competency?

Seemingly the advantages to be gained from certification outweigh the disadvantages. First, more young teachers would be attracted to reading — a field in which a serious shortage exists. Second, principals and other hiring officials would be aided by having standards set. Third, colleges would be aided in developing programs. Fourth, the presence of a competent reading teacher in a school system fosters both formal and informal in-service work. Fifth, the clinical needs of disabled readers demand adequate instruction.

Among the disadvantages of certification often mentioned are that mandated courses do not make an expert, increased regulation by state education departments should be avoided, and many teachers would lose their positions. Apparently, similar arguments do not obtain in other areas in which certification now exists.

In-Service Training

The number of minimally trained teachers of reading is so large that, even though pre-service training were to be completely reorganized tomorrow, years would be required before all teachers met acceptable standards. Schools, in an effort to up-grade the teaching of reading, are turning to continuing, on-the-job, formal and informal in-service training.

Some schools in their efforts to improve reading instruction are planning "locally organized in-service" courses (LOIS). If carefully selected topics are developed into a comprehensive attack on a limited problem area in reading, these LOIS courses may be worthwhile. Lack of careful pre-planning frequently results in a series of one-shot meetings devoted to such topics as "diagnosis" or "remediation."

The impression is sometimes left with teachers that they are "experts" on these topics.

Extension courses supplement LOIS programs for in-service training. If these merely duplicate college courses, a great opportunity to improve the quality of classroom reading instruction is lost. However, if the instructor of the extension course can be freed to visit teachers in their classrooms there is greater likelihood that theory will be turned into effective classroom practice. The beauty of such extension courses is that they can be tailored to the needs of the local school. Not only does the instructor "teach" the course, but he also acts in many ways as a supervisor of reading instruction.

Naturally, there are several weaknesses in the extension-course provision for in-service training. One weakness is that there are not enough instructors for the number of school systems wanting courses. This is one reason for the popularity of LOIS programs. Another weakness is that, after the course is completed, there is frequently no one sufficiently well trained in reading to continue. The reading program in our schools should be under the professional leadership of an expert.

Elementary and Secondary Administrators

Those of us who have worked closely with elementary and secondary schools realize that where the principal is sympathetic and well informed we are likely to find a good reading climate, a forward looking reading program and teachers who understand their roles in the teaching of reading. Despite many notable improvements over the last decade much remains to be done in the involvement of administrators in the reading program of the school.

An administrator cannot wholeheartedly support a reading program with which he is unfamiliar. He does not need to be a clinician and he may delegate much of the responsibility of the day-to-day operation of the program to the trained professional; but he must feel "comfortable" with the program. Anything less than this places the administrator on the defensive. Our goal, here, should be to improve the principal's knowledge of reading by courses and by NDEA and state-supported workshops.

Conclusion

Improvement in the professional training of reading personnel in the five suggested areas will not be easily achieved. College instructors frequently are unable to convince their colleagues that more time should be devoted to reading instruction. Hours allocated to courses in Education are limited. In many states they have recently been reduced. State education department documents are frequently worded to permit flexibility. In many states total programs are approved and substitution of courses permitted. The shortage of reading personnel is critical at the college level. What then, can be done?

Representatives from different types of teacher-training institutions should sit down with those members of state education departments working directly with Teacher Training, Teacher Certification and Reading. Talks should be exploratory, seeking common agreement on what needs to be improved, and determining how blocks to change may be surmounted or removed.

The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards has recently suggested that in each state educators work with departments of education to improve policies and standards. A beginning could be made in the professional training of reading personnel. Improvement is somewhat overdue.

ABSTRACT

LINGUISTICS AND THE TEACHING OF READING: REVISITED

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I would like to make three additions to the book. I would give prominence to a critique of the standard word-perception theory of reading: it is based upon false language theory—that the word is "the unit" of language; descriptions of sentences and larger language constructs are ignored. In my judgment, most "linguistic" programs for reading instruction are based upon this same simplistic error. This negative criticism is implicit throughout **Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading**, but explicitly the book is positive in its detailed presentation of a reading theory based upon a psycholinguistic description of the English language component of the reading process, including phoneme-grapheme correspondences and word analysis. We should begin to treat intonation in primary reading instruction, rhythm and stress in particular; we should also pay as much attention to sentence analysis and sentence-perception as we now do to word analysis and word perception.

New reading models, instructional programs, and research projects continue to be based upon the word-perception theory. Yet no one pretends that research supports the simplistic notion that "the word is the unit of language," which underlies word-perception theory and practice; this notion is an unexamined "given," the self-perpetuating basis of a great deal of professional activity in reading.

The second addition is a substantive one. Further study of intonation requires a new emphasis upon English rhythm and stress patterns. Chapter Four, "Intonation: the Melodies of the Printed Page," should be expanded to include exposition of English stress-timed rhythm, and of the importance of stress in rhythm, rate, and pause—all crucial to reading and comprehending printed English.

The third addition is also a substantive one. New reading programs should be discussed, especially (1) "linguistic" readers that use either a phoneme-grapheme method or a spelling-pattern word method; and (2) the Initial Teaching Alphabet. Confusion is still prevalent over the function of spelling in reading, as differentiated from writing. Chapter Eight, "Spelling, Word Analysis, and Phonics," should be expanded, or an additional chapter added to include this discussion.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING IN READING

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On the surface, American education appears to be changing rapidly. Local bond issues have been passing, in a larger percentage of instances than was true ten to fifteen years ago. Curriculum reforms have given the "new math," new social studies, and stepped-up science programs. In the area of reading, a vast array of new materials and methodological approaches have been developed and widely publicized. The mass media tell us that computer assisted instruction is just around the corner. Big business has entered the field of education through mergers with or the purchase of old established educational publishers.

Despite all of these "happenings" in education there has been little significant change in teacher behavior in the classroom. Ungraded schools flourish for a time, and then revert back to graded schools. One school system enthusiastically inaugurated an individualized reading program, but neglected to implement it with an on-going in-service program. The latest edict in this system was to the effect that all new teachers and teachers new to the system would use basal materials as the chief means of instruction. Innovations often fail because teachers are not prepared to assume responsibility for change.

A series of USOE supported studies of beginning reading point up the fact that no one particular method of teaching reading or set of instructional materials turns out to be superior to all other approaches. Regardless of the approaches compared, a wider range of pupil achievement is found in classrooms which feature a given method than is found between different approaches. The teacher always emerges as the most important variable in comparative studies.

Despite this fact, we have tended in recent years to put our faith in newer materials and methodologies. Because teaching and learning reading is such a complicated task, we would welcome a panacea. However, no panacea has been found, nor is one likely to be found.

To achieve outstanding instructional programs in reading we would have to correctly identify the real problems facing us, or in a slightly different context, we would have to recognize the barriers which have up to now kept us from achieving superior programs. For years we were relatively safe in repeating the slogan "we have no problems in education which couldn't be solved with adequate financial support." Now we know that money alone won't save us; for when Federal funds inundated education in 1965-66 we found it was the lack of **creative ideas** relating to the educational process that was the stumbling block.

The Departments of Instruction in the various states were literally swamped by money that was to be dispersed to the local school districts. The major response pattern of most school systems was to: 1) fall back on outmoded obsolete in-service programs, where a consultant was commissioned to come and talk at and to teachers; 2) buy gadgets and mechanical devices; 3) stock up on books and varied assortment of printed materials, primarily because they were available. There was a naive hope that inadequately trained teachers, many of whom had no real drive or desire to change, could be re-tooled in 6 to 8 one-hour inservice meetings. This, despite the body of data we have that both teaching and learning the reading process is a very complicated process.

The better programs may well have been the intensive summer institutes which featured systematic instruction in the reading process and extensive professional reading by the participating teachers. However, it is likely that in these programs a large percent of the energy of the trained personnel was siphoned off into proposal writing, filling out forms, flying from one to another instructional arena and other such activities.

A major indictment of American education is the very meagre and totally inadequate training which potential teachers of reading receive in existing teacher training programs. The inadequacy of teacher training programs was documented in the recent Harvard-Carnegie Study by Austin. (**The Torchlighters: Tomorrow's Teachers of Reading.**) Data indicated that the professional training of some elementary teachers did not include a single course in the teaching of reading. Preparation for teaching in the intermediate grades was even more neglected. The need for knowledge in one's field is not questioned in other areas of teaching such as history, mathematics, literature, or science. However, providing the training which would result in extensive knowledge of the reading process seems to have been waived both in pre-teaching training and in in-service programs. No one would argue for a moment that training institutions or local school systems **want** inadequately trained teachers of reading. But both apparently would accept this outcome rather than radically change the **status quo** in training programs.

Goals for a Sound In-Service Program

A good in-service program will be concerned with the total teaching-learning climate. Thus, the program will have to focus on, and involve teachers, methodology, materials and administration. These factors constantly interact and determine to a large extent the type of climate for learning that will be found in a school.

Reading instruction in a given school or community must be viewed as developmental in nature. Instruction must be an integrated whole, not bits and pieces inserted into the grade level system. The only way a school system can achieve an integrated program is to have all teachers in the system working together. Each must understand more than her own grade level.

Briefly stated, in-service programs must help teachers become more proficient in:

1. developing a differentiated instructional program that is geared to what individual learners need.
2. understanding of, and efficient use of a wide array of materials. materials.
3. developing and maintaining a meaningful on-going diagnostic program.
4. working with other teachers and sharing teacher techniques. niques.
5. reading professional materials including reading research and applying findings to the classroom.
6. integrating reading instruction in all content areas.

In-Service Growth Through Sharing

In the past, elementary teachers have tended to be professional isolates, each an island unto herself. As a result, teaching tends to become stagnated and uncreative with teachers repeating the same approaches year after year. Despite the grossly inadequate pre-service training of teachers, few communities have worked out meaningful in-service programs in which teachers meet together as professionals and share ideas, teaching techniques, or discuss research and professional materials.

The inability or disinclination to establish such an in-service climate for growth is the cause of great waste in American education. It is a truism that significant differences exist among teachers and it would be illogical to assume that teachers cannot learn from each other. Many teachers are not aware of effective techniques used by other colleagues in the same system. This is due to the fact that there is little communication of a professional nature between teachers.

While it is true that individual teachers might evolve methods of sharing, comparing, and growing, this is not likely to occur on any large scale. Professional isolation has become a deeply ingrained characteristic of elementary teaching. There is little likelihood that teachers operating "on their own" can reduce significantly the waste of resources in their community. What is needed is a plan worked out cooperatively by teachers and the administration. Participating teachers should be volunteers rather than prisoners of an edict. A few teachers who care about professional growth constitute a much more powerful leavening agent than does an assemblage of 100 per cent of the teachers, some for whom fear change to such a degree that they will consciously or unconsciously scuttle any attempt at growth through sharing. Until something is done on this front we will not significantly improve reading instruction programs.

The Reading Teacher as Reader

Teachers are potentially very valuable educational resources in their respective communities. Their resource value is enhanced as they become avid readers. Too few teachers distinguish themselves as "readers" of research reports and professional materials related to reading instruction. It is no exaggeration to state that a large per cent of reading teachers are unfamiliar with much of the pertinent research in this area. Their training did not equip them to interpret research, or transfer research findings into classroom practice. Until this deficit in training and its concomitant depressant effect on professional growth is remedied, there is little hope for significant improvement of the teaching of reading.

Reading to pupils is a second responsibility of teachers-as-readers. It is important that pupils see and understand that their reading teacher is an avid reader. The good reading teacher not only loves to read but she wishes to share reading experiences with her students. Obviously, when a teacher reads to students, she will make sure that she provides them with a good model of oral reading. As she reads with expression and feeling, pupils will learn much about how to interpret poetry and good literature. As the teacher reads, she is teaching appreciation and providing motivation for students to extend their own reading horizons.

Teachers have a tremendous influence on children's reading. Studies indicate that pupils show a preference for materials which teachers praise or recommend. Thus, an important criterion for judging the school's reading program is the classroom behavior of teachers. Those who love to read will want to share with students those stories and literary passages which they love. Teaching reading without a feeling for, and appreciation of, good literature reduces reading instruction to an educational ritual for both teacher and pupil.

Good Practices and Diagnosis

Two major barriers to improved teaching of reading are: 1. Our inability or disinclination to work out a thorough differentiation of instruction in every classroom at every grade level is at present the major barrier to good instruction. 2. Our failure to achieve a realistic program of on-going diagnosis. Please note there can be no real differentiation of instruction in the absence of a thorough diagnosis of every child's present abilities and present needs.

If you could ask only one question about a reading program before you were asked to give an opinion as to whether it was a good program — the one question would likely center on diagnosis of pupils' present reading ability. If teachers do not believe in and practice on-going diagnosis, you can assume that much of their teaching is ritual, that individual needs are not being met, or are being met haphazardly.

One of the unfortunate facts of present day American reading instruction is that teachers do not use diagnosis as extensively as they should. We all believe in it; we all pay lip service to this principle that diagnosis should serve as the blueprint for instruction—yet we neglect diagnosis. This is the basic cause of many of our reading problems today. Many children slip through the grades without mastering phonic analysis skills; some tend to over-use phonic analysis; some never really learn to read critically; some do not profit from punctuation, or learn to phrase material adequately. Some are dericient in how to use the index, table of contents, glossary, or the appendix in subject matter texts. Some are weak in dictionary skills, locating information, or effective use of library facilities. Diagnosis is the only real basis for differentiating instruction.

Differentiation of instruction is the chief identifying characteristic of a good reading program. All that we know about how children learn to read tends to emphasize that they differ greatly as individual learners. They differ radically both as to what they have learned up to the present moment, and the rate at which they will learn as a result of present instruction. Although there are numerous practices which a teacher might profitably use with an entire class, there are also procedures which will not be equally effective for every member of a class.

If the teacher or school program has real concern for the individual child, this fact will be reflected in how individual differences among children are met. Differentiation of instruction is difficult to achieve, but it is the key improvement of instruction. In-service programs must deal with this problem.

Conclusion

Teachers and schools can develop meaningful in-service programs but it should not be inferred that this is an easy task or that such programs are widespread in our schools. There is a great deal of inertia in education; a tendency to continue doing what we have been doing.

The most important recent development in reading instruction is the rediscovery of the importance of the teacher as the catalyst in pupil mastery of the reading process.

In order to make our point we shall refer to a series of related happenings. The first of these has been the recent development and availability of an absolutely overwhelming amount of material for the teaching of reading. Much of this material has been associated with identifiable approaches to teaching reading. The second important factor was our hope, and in some cases, belief that materials and new approaches could solve the myriad of instructional problems facing us. The third is the abandonment of this naive position.

These events and perceptions have been responsible for our moving through a period of hope, frustration and disillusionment. Recently there have been indications that we are about ready to return to the hard reality that reading programs, regardless of name, philosophy, or materials, can never rise above the level of instruction found in these programs.

Teachers are beginning to believe that teaching is the key to important future developments in instruction. True, only a small beginning has thus far been made, and it is the potential which resides in this trend rather than a fully achieved development to which we refer. However, if a majority of teachers become fully convinced that teaching is the key to successful reading programs, they will see the absolute necessity for becoming better informed in the area of reading instruction.

We are on the verge of accepting Thomas Paine's observation that "every man of learning must eventually become his own teacher." The most important recent development in reading is the emerging recognition on the part of reading teachers that they must assume some responsibility for their own professional growth and teaching competence. If this revolutionary idea should spread, elementary teachers may well achieve the elusive goal of making teaching a profession.

GIVE THEM ALL A HEAD START WITH CHILDREN'S BOOKS!

Donald J. Bissett
Syracuse University

It has become very unfashionable these days to talk about the **usefulness** of literature. A few speakers and writers can get away with judicious comments to the effect that books minister to a reader's psychological needs or that social development is furthered by certain types of reading. But by and large, it is rather gauche today to suggest that books have utilitarian purposes.

They do. And unfortunately, the average classrom teacher does not recognize the many potential ways in which books can be used to achieve the objectives of the reading program. The following are a few suggestions from a confessed enthusiast of children's literature.

During Readiness and Initial Reading Instruction

Creating a desire to read. Every teacher of readiness and beginning reading knows how important an active desire to read is to the success of a child's first experiences in learning to read. It would be comforting to think that all children come to school with a background of knowledge of books and a burning desire to read. This is just not true. Many children come to school from homes where reading assumes little importance—where parents seldom read and homes are virtually devoid of appealing books and magazines. And an alarming number of children from more affluent homes come to us with a similar lack of experience with books for their parents are so busy they have little time to select and read appropriate books to pre-school children.

Young children cannot develop a desire to read if they do not know first what is in books. Perhaps one-third of all kindergarten children have had no experiences with informational books. Very few children entering school have had an effective exposure to the many fascinating books of poetry for young children. Most children's experience with stories have been limited to perhaps one or two of the many types of stories available today.

Carefully planned experiences with a variety of carefully chosen picture books can almost guarantee that all children during readiness and initial reading experiences will develop a strong interest in books and a healthy desire to read.

Developing Readiness Skills. Nearly all the many skills we usually associate with readiness for reading can be developed or reinforced by using picture books. Reading aloud can help to provide both gross and fine experiences in auditory discrimination. A variety of listening experiences come naturally from the range of picture books available. When teachers plan books as part of the strategy of the listening and auditory discrimination development, children's awareness of and capacity for discrimination and interpretation can be greatly enhanced.

But because picture books are a unique artistic expression combining spoken or written text with pictures, many visual discrimination tasks spring naturally from seeing and interpreting the pictures in books. Moving carefully from gross to fine discrimination tasks, the teacher can lead the child through a series of visual experiences designed to stimulate fine visual discrimination—one of the abilities most essential for the reader. The task of attending to visual details does not come easily or naturally to many children. Using picture books for this experience is pleasant, painless, and frankly sometimes much more interesting for the child than an additional worksheet.

Likewise, books provide a natural setting for the foundation of a host of comprehension and interpretation skills: finding the main idea or most important event, noticing and interpreting important or interesting details, making inferences. These skills develop naturally from informal discussions following the reading of a book.

Concept and language development can also be stimulated by varied experiences with a picture book. The range of subject matter, vocabulary, and linguistic patterns in the contemporary picture book make the use of the picture book uniquely suited to the objectives of concept and language development.

Developing necessary skills and attitudes for literary appreciation: If our main objective in the reading program is not to run children through readers, but rather to make readers out of children, then perhaps there should be more to a readiness program than creating a desire to read and hastening children's physical, conceptual and language development. Perhaps one of the reasons that some children and adults never develop into real readers is that they have never developed some of the attitudes and skills necessary to really enjoy reading — their heart does not beat faster with the racing climax of a plot, they cannot lose themselves identifying with the problems of book characters, they cannot feel the impact of a well-constructed theme, or see the beauty of fine writing style, or find information when they need it.

Such deprived people have not been introduced to literary skills in sequence which makes mastery of those skills possible. Fortunately for children today, the variety of types of books available provide natural training ground for literary appreciation—when appreciation is considered a series of experiences rather than a set of rules, children can master skills through pleasant experience. Folk Tales are the seed bed of plot recognition and appreciation. Realistic stories present characters easy to identify with. Fantasy stimulates and keeps alive the imagination. Hero stories stimulate desire for achievement. Funny stories develop appreciation for humor. Unusual stories help to feed the appetite for the most choice literary experience—finding the unexpected between the covers of a book. Both fiction and non-fiction books help children develop a great range of skills necessary to locate, extract, and make meaning out of the great reservoir of knowledge contained in books.

After Children Begin to Read

Many of the values of literature mentioned above continue after children begin to read. Several new uses of literature for the developing of reading skills appear. First, reading children's books provides practice in reading skills. Even when reading skills are immature, books help to reinforce those skills. For many years, reading teachers wrung their hands and cried out in pitiful supplication to publishers to produce material of the so-called high interest, low vocabulary type. We now have it in such abundance we don't know what to do with it all. Perhaps some three to five thousand different titles are now available for readers with immature reading skills. This material ranges from tightly controlled vocabulary and sentence structure through the more loosely controlled to vast quantities of material written in natural easy-to-read style. The problem today is not where is the material, but rather from the mountain of material, what do I choose. Perhaps from the primer level, most certainly from the skills level usually associated with the first reader, abundant material is available for children to practice reading skills.

A variety of children's books not only provide practice for the child, they provide him with a chance for an individual experience. In our attempts to make the child's reading instruction individualized, children's books are very useful—whether one thinks of individualized reading instruction with a capital or lower case i.

This individualized experience leads to a third use of literature after children begin to read—it leads to a variety of experience. Hopefully, a variety of reading experiences will lead to a broadening rather than a narrowing of interests. A great many studies have explored children's reading interests. Since we are somewhat certain that children's interests are learned, and that learning is stimulated by the child's environmental influences, it would seem a worthy objective to concentrate on broadening the child's interest as well as satisfying his current interests. A variety of experiences with books appropriate to the child's development would certainly help in such an attempt to broaden his interest.

But perhaps the major contribution of children's literature to the reading program is that when children are interested in reading, when they find material which satisfies their needs and interests, this material provides a genuine need for reading skills: a need for word recognition, for adequate comprehension, interpretation, reflection, evaluation and the other skills which we recognize as necessary. Until the child consciously or unconsciously feel this need, teaching reading can only be minimally successful. It is true that for a certain time we can create artificial needs for children in the classroom. Younger children learn some things because we want them to. But as a child achieves independence, it is more and more difficult to stimulate learning artificially. Who among us has not seen the faces of fifth graders—some resigned, some hostile, some simply vapid because it is **us** not **they** who need for them to learn to read. What we would not give for the opportunity to help satisfy rather than create their need to read.

You may have noted the abundance of 'perhaps' and qualified statements in this attempt to verbalize some of the possible uses of literature to the reading skills development program. By and large, the corpus of children's literature is a body obese with opinion but emaciated in evidence springing from research. To the extent that educational research affects classroom procedure, this is unfortunate. Until teachers learn more about children's literature and discover more effective ways of using children's books, we are forced to operate in the ouija board school of methodology.

It is entirely possible that using children's books can give children a healthy head start in reading instruction, before they begin to read, and at each step of the developmental process. In this fortunate age when large amounts of federal money are available for purchase of children's literature, it is time for a re-evaluation of the place of literature in the reading program and a sharpening of the effectiveness of our methods of bringing children and books together.

THE MEDIA OF OUR AGE

M. Jerry Weiss
Jersey City State College

I speak this afternoon fully aware of the honorable and responsible task I have on this program. Great writers and thinkers have defined my role carefully.

Lao-Tse, the Chinese philosopher, said: "He who knows does not speak; he who speaks does not know."

George Bernard Shaw reminded me: "You know very well that after a certain age a man has only one speech."

The economist Thorstein Veblen remarked: "Great purity of speech is presumptive evidence of several successive lives spent in other than vulgarly useful occupations."

The sacred Talmud holds forth: "He who is verbose brings on sin."

Even with these limited words of encouragement here is a fool who would persist in his folly in order to gain wisdom.

Writers within me, voices of many media and many a mood, warn me that talking may murder thinking.

I urge some thinking and understanding due to any mad man.

Please listen, unprejudiced by experiences and vested interests.

Don't mutter and murmur the cliches of our lifetime:

"Where will we get the time?"
"Who's going to pay for all of this?"
"Does **he** know that I'm only one person?"
"Has **he** seen **our** curriculum guide?"
"Isn't **he** exaggerating?"
"Does **he** know our supervisor?"
"It won't work in **my** classroom!"
"He's an idealist. When was the last time he saw a child?"

Don't worry. I have nothing to sell. No panaceas; no kits; no boxes; no machines; no marvels of the technological, research-oriented, NDEA - ESEA era. This is the open monologue of a not too scholarly man. His windmill is reality. His sword a tongue twisted with truths.

One might very well ask: "How do truths get twisted?"

One might answer: "In the media of our age."

Media are man's ways of communicating. When effective, they touch the vital nerves of internal emotion that stimulates one to believe, to learn, to act, to respond. One can also be so touched as to shout, to denounce, to cry, to destroy.

Media control and are controllable.

Media influence and are influenced.

Media require a sender and a receiver.

Media may threaten the whole world of the unenlightened teacher.

One might present the case of the teacher. Isn't he a communicator?

To whom? Of what? With what? For what purposes? With what effect?

How many teachers answer these questions?

Ashley Montagu in his new book THE AMERICAN WAY OF LIFE comments:

> Teachers must take a good look at themselves and realize that they do indeed stand at the very center of humanity, that their task is no less than the making of humanity, and that there can scarcely be a more responsible work than this. Those that feel that such a job is too much of a responsibility for them will have my complete sympathy, and I should encourage them to look for some other employment. I want to see teachers who genuinely understand the nature of the critically important relation in which they stand to the world of humanity, and I should like to see them conducting themselves as they believed this . . . (p. 266)

How much humanity is in our educational practices? Are we more concerned with making men and molding minds or giving grades? Do we elevate egos or reward regurgitation? Do we worship the wonders of the world? Or do we prefer the wonder of the workbooks?

Many children, under the guidance of teachers, find it more significant to make a map rather than to understand man's relationship to each other in the world. It is more important to dissect a poem than to digest the mood, the tone, the wholeness of man's creation. The past is too often more important than the present and the future. Curiosity and creativity are too often cancelled checks in the bank of conformity and modern stringent curriculum practices.

I am not being critical, just practical.

The voices within me know that teachers mean well.

But here is a child who cannot read too well. He is sent for help. He is diagnosed and worked on. A teacher reaches him. The fortunate teacher sends to the regular classroom teacher a report of what might be done to help the student develop further. The classroom teacher says: "He is one of many. How can I?"

A child dies.
But how many live?

Ask the clinicians. Ask the experts on methodology. Ask the material manufacturers. The powerful presses are now merging with the giants of technology. All are guaranteed to Xerox and IBM the ways of good life for those who meet the perfected programs as set forth by modern day gods.

The soft sounds:
  Look, Dick, Look.
  Run, Spot, Run.
  ITA, Words In Color, Linguistics
  Sight and Sound

And it took us over three million dollars to find out that no one method of teaching reading is better than another; that we need to be more flexible, more resourceful, and use a variety of approaches to reach the many children we have. **($, $, $, $)**

But will we? When? Where?
Meantime, another child dies.
We wait. We watch.
We look for structure and develop the strictures of tracking.

We look for talent and settle for the tentacles of tortuous tests which prove the unpredictability of how a child perceives learning and the values of life.

(Note: See the winter, 1966-67 issue of UNIVERSITY, the Princeton quarterly. Dr. Lawrence A. Pervin presents an interesting problem in his article, "New Look at the Bored Student," pages 27-30.

Too, we must realize that we still have a large number of college dropouts, still about fifty per cent of an entering class. Why?)

Another child dies.
The static of our media interferes again:

Hearken to the job corps with the unfulfilled aspirations of dropouts who drank not too well from our texts. Those listless, lustless, lifeless tombs of infinite trivia were designed to tranquilize. Youth turn pages, do assignments, climax our best efforts by being passed. Passed into what?

How many pass into lifetime readers?

The media record Philadelphia, Mississippi and Selma, Alabama. Adam Clayton Powell and Barry Goldwater.

Mr. Newton of Wayne, N. J., who urges the defeat of two Jewish candidates for Board of Education because their election would take Christ out of Christmas. Three astronauts die in the exploration of outer space; how many records on teachers who died exploring inner irrelevant space.

Flash, Flash, Flash ..... Controlled Reader Time.
Tachistoscope ..... Accelerators ..... Pacers
Marvels of Machinery ..... Flashing into immortality and immorality
(Note: Over seventy-five per cent of federal funds allotted for reading went into meaningless machinery and drill skill stuff. Not into books. Not into books. Flash .....)
The media reports. Youths want more than climbing middle class success ladders and acquiring success in an LSD, HELL'S ANGELS WORLD.

The world is psychedelic.

Yes, teacher, we have Vietnam. What are you doing about it?

Yes, teacher, we have Asia and Africa? What are you doing about it?

Yes, teacher, there is sex!

The media advertises: A MAN AND A WOMAN. DEAR JOHN. BLOW-UP. ALFIE. WHO'S AFRAID OF VIRGINIA WOOLF? NOBODY WAVED GOODBYE.

The classroom advertises: Tomorrow we shall discuss the main idea of a paragraph. We shall phonic for fun. We shall skim and scan and scurry in our surrey with our fringe on top. We shall new math. We shall skill drill. We shall grade and group. We shall grope. Facts are finite until .....

The media proclaims: Scientists today discovered a new wonder.

People

The media features: Today, escape and fun.

The classroom features stagnant stanines and startling statistics which prove time and time again that some can and some can't.

But who changes? What changes?

Research says .....

The texts and curriculum guides say .....

Pick your purple card. Olive for you, Nellie. Isn't this fun?

See the card. Fun *** CARD *** FUN.
Read and do. Think and do.
Who do?
You're wrong, son.

Sorry . . . sorry . . . sorry. This recording was made in a modern educational leeching laboratory.

The modern media claim only her hairdresser knows.

The teacher so often doesn't know. He doesn't know why this child is the way he is. Guidance is a room lost in the cavern of time. Who goes there? The caring. How many? Too few.

The media cater to the individual as part of a mass.

The teacher caters to the middle who won't make a mess.

The media command us to vote.

The teacher judges and decides. The public defeats the bond issues for education.

The media offer channels for change.

The classroom confuses orderliness for organization and silence for serious study. We have rote, recitation, regurgitation and retention.

Any form of communication requires a message with a purpose.

The sender knows the receiver and plans his message in such a way so as to get that message across in the clearest manner possible. This requires careful planning, resourcefulness, creativity, flexibility.

The teachers in many schools use a dynamic duo system: Talk and Turn to page 20.

Why aren't schools more exciting? Why are we lost in the single text word of prejudice and ignorance?

Marshall McLuhan in his book **Understanding Media** urges men to see the present, the world of electronic environment, and to gain a better perspective of how modern media shape people.

McLuhan is concerned that we know the medium: the medium is the thing. Know the form, structure, framework. The medium shapes content. The message is affected by the medium. The medium affects the consumer. It reaches him and does something to him. The medium affects society. It may be subtle at first, but in time reshapes civilization.

This is the age of multi-media — paperbacks by the thousands, including the revolutionary world of American Education Publications and Scholastic Publications. Look at the glorious efforts of Dell, Pocket Books, Inc., Bantam, New American Library, Fawcett, Pyramid, Avon, Popular Library, Berkley, to name a few. But who uses them?

This is the age of television — the finest in original dramas, performances by stars and international dignitaries; spectaculars in the word of sports; discussions on national and international events. Live or taped: the real world at our fingertips. But who uses them?

This is the age of records — poets and novelists reading their own works on Caedmon discs; plays recorded on RCA Victor, Decca, Columbia, Kapp, which bring living theatre to every class room for every student. The finest actors play the most challenging roles. But who uses them?

This is the age of movies — the creative blending of talents in such pictures as THE SOUND OF MUSIC, DOCTOR ZHIVAGO, A MAN FOR ALL SEASONS, THE SAND PEBBLE. Foreign films highlight contemporary issues. But who uses them?

This is the age of radio — news on the hour; the hit songs played by the really influential; advertising specials; jackpots; interviews. But who listens?

This is the age of magazines and newspapers — THE NEW YORK TIMES and THE NEW YORK NEWS: THE NEW YORKER: PLAYBOY: ESQUIRE: SATURDAY REVIEW: SATURDAY EVENING POST: MODERN SCREEN: CONFIDENTIAL: NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC: TIME: LOOK: LIFE: NEWSWEEK: THE REPORTER: FACT: DIPLOMAT . . . . . right wing, left wing, all around the town. We select for information, for pleasure; we believe; we denounce. We love; we hate. No writer is perfect no reader is perfect. Facts distort truths.

This is the age of tape recorders and overhead projectors — a new sound world: a new sight world. Tapes and transparencies to illustrate and illuminate.

This is the era of creative force which has grown out of the technological revolution. Cartoonists reflect modern dilemmas. Writers and statesmen are recorded for posterity at their height of influence and negligence. The world is a show. Students see and tell.

Meantime, back in the classroom . . . . .

How many teachers search for philosophies based on their understanding of students; student needs and abilities?

How many devise ways of organizing content that will stimulate each child to develop as a reader, writer, speaker, listener, intellectual being; as a physical being; as a social being; as an emotional being; as a moral being?

How many teachers feel the excitement of using a variety of approaches to reach each student? How many can cope with multibooks? How many can implement instructional programs based on student interests, abilities, experiences?

How many teachers can honestly evaluate their own efforts by seeing how well they have provided for the individual needs of students? By helping children to mature through their own judgments and decisions? By lifting aspirations? By challenging concerns? By developing creativity? By helping students to master skills as they need them and by helping them appropriately as needed?

How many teachers are developing lifetime readers? How many teachers are lifetime readers?

Dr. Robert Duffy, chairman of the Department of Elementary Education at the University of Maryland, did a study on the reading habits of elementary teachers in Maryland.

He found out the following:

(1) An extremely small percentage were currently reading a book.
(2) A very few had read a book in the past year, and if they had, they couldn't remember the title.
(3) Reading was restricted to magazines such as LIFE, READER'S DIGEST, etc.

He concluded in this faculty position paper that it was the responsibility of professors in elementary methods courses to read and to stimulate the reading interests of their students.

Richard Bossone, in an article in the October 1966 issue of **Education**, reports that only 17 per cent of Americans are currently reading a book. He concludes that this is largely due to the meaningless association with books that children experience during their lives in school.

And the Gallup poll continues to indicate how few buy books and how few read.

We must be doing something semi-right.

How many teachers are helping students to be sensitive to the nature and value of language?

Words are emotional. They excite. They stimulate.

Writers who reach, inspire.

Are texts living?

Or is reading dead?

Some say God is dead.

Ask Nietzsche.

Others say Nietzsche is dead.

Ask God.

That which is relevant to the individual LIVES.

That which is beautiful to the individual LIVES.

That which adds meaning and hope for the individual LIVES.

That which stimulates and challenges the individual LIVES.

Systems . . . basals . . . scopes and sequences . . .

Ask the publisher . . . he knows . . . and they sell

And they laugh . . .

Who fails? A child or a system? A teacher?????

The media have the power to draw out each person as an individual and to appeal to his personal interests.

The teacher has the power to provide for individual differences and to communicate on a day by day basis, person to person.

Conferences such as this offer teachers the chance to share experiences and to discuss common problems. Here we have had the opportunity to look at new materials. We have heard research reports. We have listened to good teachers tell us some possible ways of being more effective. But will we ever look at our notes again? Will we do anything about all of this?

What is media of reading?

Who watches? Who listens? Who buys?

By comparison, who reads?

Who thinks?

Who appreciates?

Who challenges?

Who entertains?

Who inspires Positive action?

Who frustrates or discourages?

Media? or Master?

Machine or Man?

Why or?

Merge . . . Instead of goodbye . . . and thank you . . . Click.